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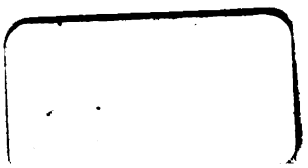

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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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MARCH TO MAY 1909

Volume 54

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# The Chautauquan

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Modern Economic Forces Against War

Delft, Scheveningen, The Dutch Universities

Dutch Animal Painters

The Woman Question in Germany

Auguste Rodin and His Statue of Balzac

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Napoleon in Hell. In the Wiertz Gallery, Brussels. (See "The Human Harvest" in the

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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 54. MARCH, 1909. No. 1.

EACH year brings its problems and its duties to governors, legislatures, and public bodies generally. Policies and measures depend on needs and situations, and there is nothing surprising in the fact that questions that are paramount one year assume a secondary character the following, other questions taking their place at the forefront of discussion.

A careful reading of the inaugural addresses and the messages of the several state executives to the legislatures in session this winter shows that certain questions are deemed vital and "burning" everywhere. They comprise direct primary reform, better control of public service corporations, regulation of charges by public utilities or "natural monopolies," so-called, and further temperance legislation. The leading question is the harnessing and taming of the public service corporation. In New York Governor Hughes advocates the extension of the well known public service act to telegraph and telephone companies. He strongly favors direct nominations of all state officers by the people, largely as a means of facilitating proper control of such corporations, as it is from them and their agents that resistance to proper regulation in the public interest generally comes.

In Missouri the appointment of a public service commission under the authority of a statute modeled upon that of New York is advocated by Governor Hadley. In Illinois there is talk of a similar commission. In other states the control of the capitalization of corporations operating under special franchises is emphasized as the most pressing need.



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In the words of the federal Supreme Court, we may expect that regulation of corporations that enjoy monopolistic powers will be undertaken with greater and greater frequency, for the people are alive to the injustice of extortion and the reaping of unearned rewards by beneficiaries of special privilege. Property rights will be respected, but the oppressive exercise of mere economic power will be stopped. Under our law there can be no confiscation of profits or of legitimate earnings, but there can be just regulation of rates and charges to make them reasonable.

The fight on monopoly is a fight on the political interests that serve monopoly. The political reforms of the day are therefore everywhere closely connected with the corporate and industrial reforms that are being agitated. As Mr. Heney of San Francisco, the able prosecutor of bribers and grafters, has said, political corruption is largely due to business dishonesty, to greed and plunder by seekers of illegitimate franchises and other illicit favors, such as "protection" by the police against prosecution for violations of laws in regard to gambling, Sunday-selling, etc. The boss and the machine derive the greater part of their power for evil from these sinister influences, and to increase popular control of nominations and elections is indirectly to diminish the opportunities of the corrupt politicians or their masters "behind the throne."

## Waste of Human Life and Labor

One of the striking and gratifying movements of the day is that which seeks to apply "conservation" to human life and human energy. If we are to conserve natural resources, how much more important it is to conserve the "wealth," material and moral, represented by trained men and women—wage-workers, teachers, fathers and mothers of families. There are, of course, many ways in which life and health may be conserved, and sickness prevented, but the particular ways that are attracting earnest attention have to do with the fight on tuberculosis and with the promotion

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of industrial safety in mines, mills, factories, and on railroads and steamships. Consumption entails an appalling amount of waste—hundreds of millions annually from the purely pecuniary point of view, since each adult person represents earning capacity and "stored up capital." To save the curable consumptives is to save wealth, to say nothing of the suffering and misery thereby averted. Hence the present disposition of governors and legislatures to favor laws for the establishment of sanatoria and hospitals for various classes of tuberculous patients. County and municipal authorities have their own duties in the premises, but the states should not throw the whole burden on such local bodies. This year will witness the passage of several measures creating state institutions for the treatment and cure of consumptives.

As wasteful as tuberculosis is the negligence which leads to industrial accidents. There are no accurate or complete data on the subject, but according to a recent government bulletin the number of fatal accidents among our adult male wage-workers alone is about 35,000 annually. That half of these can be prevented by safety devices, by provisions for guarding machinery, by inspection and sanitary regulations, is thought a conservative estimate. The number of non-fatal accidents in the country is a little under 2,000,000, and perhaps half of these are preventable. It is universally recognized that there are too many disasters in our mines and on our railroads; it is equally true that there are too many accidents in our factories and shops. Legislation is needed to stop the maiming and killing of the industrial workers, and the progressive executives are laying due stress on this subject.

Connected with the prevention of accidents is the question of employers' liability or of compensation to the injured and the families of the disabled or killed wage-workers. Stronger and fairer laws fixing liability of employers are being enacted or urged in many states. The aim and intent of such laws is to modify or repeal statutes that make "contributory negligence," even when slight, a bar to recovery of

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damages or that provide against compensation for accidents due to the negligence, not of the employer or his agents—bosses, foremen, etc.,—but of "fellow servants," that is, of other workmen of the same class with that of the injured. These statutes are antiquated and unjust; they have been productive of much wrong and suffering, as well as of pauperism and degradation. The modern tendency is to assure proper compensation in all accident cases, irrespective of questions of fault, negligence, and so on. The industrial worker when disabled is worthy of care and protection as much as the disabled soldier. The compensation should be paid by society—that is, by the consumers of the products of industry. There is still vigorous opposition to this advanced view, but it is perceptibly losing ground. In England there is a law for "universal" compensation in industrial accidents, and employers, with the aid of insurance companies, satisfy its requirements without serious hardship. No one there suggests that it can be or should be repealed. The American movement for just and liberal employers' liability laws is part of a great world movement which has affected legislators and courts to a marked degree. Attacks on the constitutionality of new liability laws are not meeting with much success.

### The People's Right of Appeal

The Department of Justice has recommended a change in the criminal laws to enlarge the government's, or the people's, right of appeal in criminal suits. Congress has already enacted a statute granting to the government the right to appeal where laws are incidentally, on demurrers, declared unconstitutional. The value of this law is limited, as it merely enables the department to obtain authoritative constructions of statutes and constitutional provisions for future guidance. What is now proposed is a law to give the right of appeal in such cases, for example, as the "Standard Oil $29,000,000 fine" suit, or other cases in which powerful corporations charged with violating criminal statutes have a

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great advantage over the government. They, in the event of conviction, can appeal to the highest court. The government must stop with the judgment of the federal Circuit Court of Appeals if the Supreme Court, in the exercise of its discretion, chooses to deny a further appeal.

Thus the government was anxious to have a review of the opinion of Judge Grosscup in the "oil case" by the Supreme Court, for vital issues were involved. It applied for a writ and failed in the attempt. The case is back in the trial court, and the several doubtful points remain unsettled for the time being. The department does not know whether its contentions as to the law are sound or unsound, while each federal judicial district is free to form its own conclusions. In the interest of legal certainty, as well as of industrial security, a final decision was thought to be desirable, but it is contrary to precedent and usage to grant to the prosecution appeals in criminal cases, even where no double jeopardy is possible.

This restriction of the government's right of appeal side by side with the grant of numerous appeals by defendants, which seems to us so anomalous and paradoxical, is easily explained in the light of the past. As one writer has said, formerly "government" represented something opposed to "the people" and involving oppression and injustice. The individual feared the influence of caste and class in the rulers and wanted as many guaranties and safeguards as he could induce legislatures to adopt for his benefit. Today, in real democracies, government means popular rule, and the prosecutors for the government are in truth the people's attorneys. The danger now is not from governments so much as from privileged classes, oligarchies, plutocracies, intrenched special interests. Lawless corporations are among the chief beneficiaries of unnecessary restrictions on the people's right of appeal. There are many classes of criminal cases in which the government, representing the will of the people, could prosecute appeals to the highest court without the least substantial injustice to individuals or corporations. The legislation requested by the Department of Jus-

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tice will doubtless be enacted before long as being in complete harmony with the changed conditions of political and industrial life.

### Franchises and Rate Legislation

The proper control of public service corporations, especially of "natural monopolies," is a subject of the most vital importance that has been under discussion for years. Gradually a body of law is being developed, under the influence of public opinion, reform movements, agitation against abuses, that will solve the outstanding problems connected with that question.

To the series of important decisions that litigation over legislation fixing or reducing rates has occasioned two have recently been added—both by the federal Supreme Court. One was rendered in a New York case, a gas company monopolizing the market of the eastern metropolis having attacked as confiscatory and void an act of the legislature reducing the price of gas from one dollar to eighty cents to consumers. The court held, first, that the company appealed prematurely to the judicial power. It has not tested the statutory rate of eighty cents and could not be sure that it was insufficient to yield a fair return on its capital. The lower court had granted it an injunction restraining the state authorities from enforcing the rate act, but the Supreme Court was not satisfied with the alleged figures and data that had been submitted. It did not think a "clear case" had been made out—that it, a case sufficiently clear to warrant judicial interference and the vetoing of an act of legislation as "confiscatory" of property.

In the second place the decision lays down the new and "radical" rule that corporations enjoying monopolies under special franchises cannot capitalize "good will" and ask for dividends on such an asset. Where there is no competition, says the court, there is no good will, since the consumers cannot transfer their custom elsewhere. Franchises have value only under certain circumstances—as, for example,

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when one company has bought them from another—but as a rule franchises granted by the state or people cannot be capitalized and made the instrument of excessive profits. Where the franchise is a gift it would be manifest injustice to require the donors, the people, to pay dividends to the beneficiary on their gift. Corporations are entitled to a reasonable return on their investment—on their capital, skill, good will—but a franchise given to a corporation by it is not an investment.

In the Virginia rate case, where a federal court had restrained the enforcement of an order of the state railroad commission reducing passenger rates, the Supreme Court held that under the particular law of Virginia any rate case must go from the lower state court to the higher or highest —the state courts having been given "legislative functions" in regard to rate-making, and no action of the railroad commission being complete until the highest appellate tribunal has played its part in the process,—heard complaint and given its verdict. In both cases, and in some minor ones since decided, the Supreme Court has made it plain that it will not annul legislation at the request of the interested parties and on the strength of their guesses and fears. Where it is claimed that a rate is too low and therefore confiscatory the complainant must establish his case by convincing evidence, must come into court with clean hands and honest purposes, and must be ready to meet the regulating body, whether state or federal, with full and frank information regarding its affairs, assets, liabilities, etc.

## Child Labor and Child Saving

The fifth annual conference on child labor under the auspices of the national committee dealing with that question was held at Chicago in the last days of January, and the seven sessions of the meeting were extremely fruitful and significant. The conference was truly national—for delegates from many states attended it and reported on local situations and local problems, placing valuable information

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at the command of the workers in the field. The year reviewed had been a year of advance—as new laws or amendments restrictive of child labor had been secured in several states—but it had also developed new difficulties and new problems. In many cities the laws against child labor are poorly enforced, even juries declining to convict offenders. Public sentiment is not active enough to secure obedience to these laws on the part of employers, selfish and ignorant parents, new immigrants unfamiliar with our ways and ideas, and other elements. It was shown that the societies that strive to obtain such legislation may find it necessary to fight for its energetic enforcement.

Aside from this question the conference was notable for several new features—the interest of progressive physicians in child labor restriction, the scientific character of the arguments now used in urging it, the broader view taken of the movement in behalf of childhood. Child saving and harmonious child development are the conscious object of the movement. To keep the immature and tender children out of the factories, stores, and the street trades is the main task, but secondary is the task providing proper education and proper home conditions for those thus kept out. There is waste and suffering on the farms and in the schools among the children; their health, rest, recreation, and training must be watched with care and adjusted to modern conditions of life and industry. The child even in the average home often endures unnecessary hardships owing to imperfect educational methods and overwork. The children of the poor, the dependent children, the inmates of orphan asylums and "institutions," labor under still more serious disadvantages. The question of properly placing the dependent children and insuring their physical comfort and appropriate education was considered at the unique White House Conference of January, a conference called by the President at the instance of leading students of child saving.

The nation is at last realizing the need of "conserving" childhood as well as natural resources, and the movements

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in the states and nation in behalf of the children should give us better labor laws, better schools, better housing conditions, better organization of play, and better care of the orphans, the dependent minors and the juvenile victims of neglect, poverty, or ignorance

### Lawlessness as a National Problem

Dr. Eliot, the retiring president of Harvard, is not the first American thinker or ethical teacher to warn us of the danger of tolerating lawlessness, or to declare that the average American does not entertain the same respect for the law as the average Englishman or German. But a recent address of his on this painful subject made a particularly deep impression because of its candor and vigor in dealing with illustrations of lawlessness. He indicted alike the violent striker, the tax-dodger, the briber, the purchaser of legislation, the lyncher, the mob leader or mob sympathizer, the land thief, the tricky promoter, the organizer of illegal trusts, the lobbyist and his employer.

The cause of so much prevailing lawlessness, according to Dr. Eliot, is in the general attitude toward successful lawbreakers. Society as a whole is guilty rather than individuals or classes. Night-riding and mob rule could not exist without the sympathy and connivance of large sections of the communities in which these crimes flourished. Lynching is not the work of individuals, and if juries indicted and convicted lynchers and murderers regardless of their social position, notions of "honor," and the like the practice would not long survive.

The conviction of Abraham Ruef in San Francico on charges of bribery is a wholesome lesson. The courageous verdict in the Tennessee night-rider cases—where the jury knew that assassination might be attempted by the friends of the convicted murderers—is even more salutory and impressive. The conviction of boodlers and thieving contractors in Philadelphia, Pittsburg and other cities is welcome. But such sporadic events are insufficient to check

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the general tendency to evasion and violation of law. The moral atmosphere needs to be changed. For the young it can be changed to some extent by introducing ethical instruction in the schools. For the adults it can be changed by enforcing higher standards of business and professional conduct; by shunning clever rascals, frenzied financiers, dummy directors who permit fraud and profit by it; by placing virtue and personal worth above success, and by refraining from enacting legislation that cannot be enforced and that invites hypocrisy. Who is to change the social and business atmosphere? Here juries, courts, the pulpit, the newspapers, the molders of opinion generally, can do a good deal. Public sentiment develops slowly, but it develops surely, and results achieved through it are lasting.

## A Year of Centennials

Americans have been gently lectured by friendly foreign observers or visitors on their absorption in material things and their insufficient allowance for recreation and leisure. We have few holidays, and we do not always properly observe those we have. Our sports are strenuous, and "we take our pleasures seriously." This, in a nutshell is the well-meant indictment.

But in recent years a distinct improvement has taken place in our treatment of "play" in the large sense of the term. Aside from the change in forms of recreation, the growing love of exercise, open air, walking, golfing, it is certain that there is a greater disposition to take advantage of anniversaries, jubilees and like occasions, to encourage festivals, celebrations and commemorative exercises.

The current year is preëminently a centennial year and will at the same time reflect this new spirit and further stimulate it. On the 19th of January the centenary of Edgar Allan Poe was observed all over the United States, as well as in some places in Europe. Poe remains our most imaginative, impressionable, original poet and story-teller, though his works certainly lack substance and permanent

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literature was hardly enriched by them. His unhappy life, once the subject of acrimonious controversy, is forgotten, but his literary gifts, his passionate sincerity, his rich style, his wonderfully acute intelligence are accorded generous recognition and praise. On February 3, the centenary of Bartholdi-Mendelssohn, the musician, composer and author of refined, elegant, lovely works was observed the world over. On February 12 the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Lincoln, the greatest American statesman, the martyr-president, the apostle of union, charity, and brotherhood, the author of addresses of rare eloquence and beauty, was celebrated in every city of the United States. In Illinois, the real home of Lincoln, a whole week was set aside for exercises and tributes in his honor. Plans for suitable memorial statues or architectural monuments to Lincoln's memory have been discussed in Congress and elsewhere. That Lincoln is still without a memorial, may seem a strange fact, but it is not due to insufficient appreciation. Some men can wait for suitable physical memorials, the people's affection, gratitude, and reverence serving meantime as the best of all memorials.

Among the other centenaries of the year are those of Chopin, Tennyson, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Gladstone, and Edward Fitzgerald. In commemorating such lives the contemporary world renews its own pledges to the ideals of the past, asserts the continuity of civilization and evinces appreciation of loyal, worthy, and progressive endeavor. We are the heirs of the past and must recognize our obligations to its torch-bearers, workers and spokesmen. To honor the great dead is to honor the best in humanity and in ourselves, to prove ourselves fit successors of such noble representatives of the race.

### Reform in British India

The recent changes in China—where the regent and his advisers are continuing to assure the western representatives that no reaction is contemplated, though certain steps have roused apprehension—and the new position of Japan

among the nations could not fail to produce unrest and discontent in the great Indian empire. The first symptoms of this unrest were slight, and England, the ruler of the Hindu masses, took no notice of them. Later, disturbances and seditious demonstrations began to occur, and measures of repression were taken. These only inflamed the excited elements and the methods of the western terrorist or dynamiter were next tried. Bomb throwing in India was indeed a startling fact, but even more startling was the boldness with which native newspapers spoke of the new weapons as the natural and desperate resort of an oppressed and disfranchised people. Great Britain became thoroughly aroused. Lord Morley, the liberal secretary for India, admitted that the situation was menacing, and the Indian authorities found themselves forced to exile certain native leaders, pass laws for the summary punishment of sedition and incendiarism and for stricter control of assembly and press. But at the same time the statesmen responsible for the government of India recognized the necessity of modernization and improvement of the whole administrative system. Lord Morley, though a political "radical," firmly believes that India is not ripe for home rule or constitutionalism; he has no intention of transferring any real power from "alien" British hands to natives. Such transfer, he is certain, would be detrimental to the country and a source of discord, confusion and misgovernment. But he believes that the time has come for an increase of the advisory power of native leaders and that in spite of sedition and terrorist outrages such liberal reforms as are reasonable should be granted. He has proposed that a native be given a seat on the viceroy's executive council and that the legislative council be enlarged and made more representative of the native population. He also believes in strengthening the provincial governments and giving them more native members and advisers.

These concessions do not satisfy the radicals either in England or in India. But many moderates regard them as almost "revolutionary" and as the entering wedge of self-government. The Indian nationalist congress has praised

Lord Morley and accepted his proposals with gratitude, whereas the previous congress was violently opposed to British policy and ended in disorder.

In Egypt, too, there is a formidable nationalist movement that aims at parliamentary government and home rule. British statesmen declare that the grievances of the Egyptians are sentimental and unreal, but there are observers who think that England may find herself under the necessity of evacuating Egypt and turning it over to the Turkish parliament with the understanding that home rule is to be granted to the province.

## Note and Comment

The next International Housing Congress will be held at Vienna in 1910, and the Austrian Housing Reform Council is already actively at work making the necessary arrangements for this interesting international gathering. During the present year a special international conference will be held in Paris to consider a neglected aspect of the housing question, viz., "The relation of bad housing conditions to tuberculosis." The International Housing Committee will be responsible for the calling of this conference, and the governments of various countries will be invited to send representatives.

* * * *

On the disputed question of "continuous voyages" the International Naval Conference in London became deadlocked according to reports in January. Further government instructions were sought. The conference was called by Great Britain to frame a code of laws for naval warfare, and to establish the International Peace Court, as recommended by the Hague Peace Conference. The conference was to determine as many definite principles of maritime international law as possible. The United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Spain, Holland, and Japan are represented. The American delegates are Rear-Admiral Charles H. Stockton and Prof. George Grafton Wilson of Brown University. Commander John H. Gibbons, the American naval attaché at London, has been acting as aide.

* * * *

CHURCHES FOR PEACE.

At the recent Federal Council of Churches Dean Henry Wade Rogers, chairman of the Committee on International Relations (Prof. Rogers wrote the article in the February CHAUTAUQUAN on "What is International Law?") closed his address with the following resolutions which were adopted as a whole by that body:

(a) *"Resolved,* That the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, assembled in the City of Philadelphia and representing more than fifteen million of communicants in the Evangelical churches of America, makes the following declarations:

"1. It declares its conviction that war is evil and that Christian nations should determine by obligatory arbitration the interna-

tional differences which cannot be settled by diplomacy. For Christian States in the Twentieth Century to refuse to arbitrate and to insist on war will be to bring reproach on the Christian name.

"2. It favors the creation of the International Court of Arbitral Justice proposed by the Second Hague Conference, and hopes that the Government of the United States will promote its establishment and that at the earliest possible day.

"3. It is opposed to increase of armaments and deplores the failure of the Hague conferences to come to an agreement upon this all important subject.

"4. It has learned with much satisfaction that the Government of the United States has recently entered into treaties of arbitration with some of the nations and it trusts that without unnecessary delay other treaties of arbitration may be made with other States. It regrets that it seemed to the contracting powers to be desirable to limit the existence of these treaties to five years and to restrict the subjects to be arbitrated to the somewhat narrow limits which the treaties define."

(b) *"Resolved,* That the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America makes the following recommendation to the Evangelical churches of America represented in this body:

"'That the churches throughout the United States, adopting the recommendation originally made by the British Peace Society to the churches of Great Britain, observe in each year the Sunday before Christmas as Peace Sunday.'

"And that the above action is taken in the hope that in all the world Christian churches of whatever name will observe the same day as Peace Sunday."

(c) *"Resolved,* That the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America recommend to the various societies of young people connected with the Evangelical denominations represented in this body that they in each year recognize as Hague Day the 18th of May, and have on that day in all their chapters as far as possible a consideration of the subject of Peace."

* * * *

There are other ways of changing the map of the world than the one that would most appeal to the German Kaiser, President Castro, or Czar Ferdinand of Bulgaria. There is, for instance, the possibly less meritorious, but older way of actually taking a bit of the earth's unknown and imperfectly-mapped surface and changing its conjectured elevations, water distributions, and coastlines into definite mountains, rivers, peninsulas, fjords, and promontories. The tragic story of the Danish Arctic explorer, Mylius-Erichsen, and his companions, Hagen and Brönlund, bears more than one rereading. The three had set out to chart the unknown northeast coast of Greenland, found their task a larger one than they had made provision for, but would not turn back until the thorough surveys they had set out to make were completed. On the way back to their base of supplies, they perished, but their records and data have been recovered, and the scientific world now rejoices in the first complete map of Greenland. Only too often the work of such map-makers prepares the way for the kind of map-makers who do their charting with the sword, or by lying at international congresses. But, after all, there are times when the world awakes to a just conception of the proportional merits of the two kinds of cartographers.—*New York Evening Post.*

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# Modern Economic Forces Against War*

By Charles A. Conant

THE effect of a really serious war, in which several great powers were engaged, would be to bring to a halt much of the costly and efficient machinery of modern life and would probably be to set back the material condition of society for many years. Summed up briefly, the causes which would invoke these results would be the checking of commerce on the seas, with the suspension of manufacturing production for export which would ensue; the almost complete suspension of operations in foreign exchange, credit, and transfers of securities between the belligerent countries; the levy upon the resources of the belligerents of immense sums for war purposes, which would be diverted from peaceful investment; and the destruction of existing wealth by deterioration and by military operations.

A great war under modern conditions would differ greatly in its effects from a war of similar magnitude in ancient or medieval times, or even in modern times down to the present generation. The difference would arise from the fact that the cost would be greater, the interests put in peril would be greater, and the interdependence among na-

*The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN; the second article, by the same author, "Danger Points About the Globe," in the October number. In November, "The Story of the Peace Movement," by Benjamin F. Trueblood; December, "Armies the Real Promoters of Peace," by Col. W. C. Church; January, "The Human Harvest," by David Starr Jordan; and "International Aspects of Socialism," by A. N. Simons; February, "What is International Law?" by Henry Wade Rogers: and "The Sanction of International Law," by Elihu Root.

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tions for food supplies, luxuries, and financial support, greater.

The cost of modern wars has been brought home in a striking way to the people of England, Russia, and Japan in recent years, even when these wars have been kept within a well-defined territory and have not seriously disturbed commerce on the seas or the security of the contending peoples at home. The war in South Africa cost the British Government directly nearly $800,000,000, or more than $90 for every family of five in the British Isles. The war between Russia and Japan cost Russia about $840,000,000, without counting disbursements after the peace, and cost Japan no less than $1,000,000,000.* A modern battleship easily costs $6,000,000, exclusive of armament. When six of these floating masses of iron and steel went to the bottom in the battle of the Sea of Japan, not less than $40,000,000 was destroyed in a day. It represented, at earnings of $200 per year, the labor of 200,000 Russian peasants for a year or more than 6,500 men for thirty years.

How does this destruction of the products of labor affect the community? Simply by withdrawing these great sums from the amounts which might be applied to extending the machinery for increasing human comfort and diminishing the severity of labor. The whole tendency of modern progress is to put savings into new devices for increasing the product of labor, but inevitably, with the multiplication of such devices, the value of the existing plant grows in proportion to the annual product. The existing mechanism of machine production and railway and steamship transportation represents the accumulated labor of many years. To destroy it or take away its opportunity for service means setting back modern civilization that much nearer to primitive conditions. Even to arrest the improvement and extension of this mechanism means that civilized communities stand still, instead of going forward.

When John Stuart Mill wrote, before the middle of the

*See the author's "History of Modern Banks of Issue," chapter on "The Crisis of 1907."

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nineteenth century, railways, "ocean greyhounds," and international stock exchanges had not become important parts of the mechanism of business life. In discussing the consumption and production of capital Mill declared that "the greater part, in value, of the wealth now existing in England has been produced by human hands within the last twelve months." From this fact,—for it was then a fact,—Mill drew the following conclusions:

"This perpetual consumption and reproduction of capital affords the explanation of what has so often excited wonder, the great rapidity with which countries recover from a state of devastation; the disappearance, in a short time, of all traces of the mischiefs done by earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, and the ravages of war. An enemy lays waste a country by fire and sword, and destroys or carries away nearly all the movable wealth existing in it; all the inhabitants are ruined, and yet in a few years after, everything is much as it was before. This *vis medicatrix naturae* has been a subject of sterile astonishment, or has been cited to exemplify the wonderful strength of the principle of saving, which can repair such enormous losses in so brief an interval. There is nothing at all wonderful in the matter. What the enemy have destroyed, would have been destroyed in a little time by the inhabitants themselves; the wealth which they so rapidly reproduce, would have needed to be reproduced and would have been reproduced in any case, and probably in as short a time."

A mighty change has come in these conditions since Mill's day. With the development of the machinery of manufacture, of distribution, and especially of transportation, the accumulated wealth of a modern civilized country represents many times the consumption of a single year. Professor Marshall computes that the value of the plant of a fully equipped spinning mill in England in 1890 was five times the amount of the annual wages paid to those who worked in the mill. In the United States, the census of 1905 showed wages paid in manufacturing establishments to the amount of $2,611,540,532, while the capital invested represented $12,686,265,673. In other words, the plant with which the laborer worked would require his continuous labor for five years for its replacement. An even larger accumulation of past labor is represented by railways and steamships. The total capital value of the railways of the United States in 1906 was about $14,570,000,000; the annual wages paid were about $928,000,000. To replace this mechanism,

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once destroyed, would require the labor of fifteen years. Equally striking is the estimate made by Professor Marshall, that the value of an ocean steamer represents ten times the annual earnings of those who man it. In other words, if the ship were destroyed, it would require from the men who constituted the crew half their annual earnings for twenty years to afford savings sufficient for the construction of a new ship.

Only those who have made a close study of the progress of the world during the past generation appreciate the difference between the conditions of today and those of a century or even a generation ago. When Napoleon issued his Berlin and Milan decrees international commerce was less than a tithe of what it is today. The machinery of modern times for carrying it on had not been created. Napoleon himself, traveling post-haste from Fréjus to Paris in 1799 to seize supreme power, used the same means of locomotion employed by Julius Cæsar or Constantine nineteen or fifteen centuries before. The roads over which he traveled were probably not better than the Roman roads created by the energy of Augustus and the enlightened policy of Hadrian. The steam locomotive was not yet a practicable substitute for the horse and cart. Fulton had not demonstrated the commercial utility of steam on the water.

The commerce of the whole of Europe in 1800 was estimated at less than $1,500,000,000; today it is nearly $25,000,000,000. The change, moreover, is qualitative as well as quantitative. In 1800 the objects of foreign commerce were largely superfluities and luxuries. Individuals suffered by blockades and privateering, but nations went on their way undisturbed, because they were self-sufficing in the essentials of life. Today the development of the economic principle, that products shall be sought where they can be produced cheapest, has radically changed these relations. Great Britain and other countries are dependent to a large degree upon the United States, the Argentine Republic, and Russia for their food. The arrest of international commerce would mean higher price for bread and meat, bread riots

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and socialist plots, and perhaps even starvation for tens of thousands.

The operation of diverting capital from the purposes of material progress to its use in making powder and ball expresses itself through the stock exchange. The capital needed by the state is obtained by taxation and by loans. It was the mistaken theory of early statesmen that obtaining capital by the issue of a loan shifted the burden from the present to future generations. This is true only of the manner in which the burden is distributed,—it is not true of the burden itself. For the uses of the state at a given moment only real guns, real shells, real battleships and living men are essential. The guns, the shells, the battleships, the men of tomorrow, are not available for the uses of today. Only existing capital can serve existing needs. The owners of capital may be found who are willing to exchange it for a promise to pay in the future. In this way, the burden of payment may be shifted as between individual taxpayers, but it cannot be shifted from the community as a whole, except as the supply of capital may be obtained by borrowing from a foreign country. It must be real capital in any case,—the tangible product of today and not of tomorrow.

The effect of this simple economic principle is that the demands of the state in time of war absorb the savings accumulated by the labor of producers in time of peace. The state cannot afford to have devoted to peaceful improvements the savings which it is compelled to apply to the work of destruction. If manufacturers or railway builders come into the market seeking capital, they are outbid by the state. Hence the value of old securities declines in competition with the national securities, it becomes impossible to sell new securities for private enterprises, and work on such enterprises comes to a halt.

But the direct consumption of capital would be only one of many results of a great war. The past generation has witnessed the construction of the most elaborate, delicate, and widely extended machinery which the world has ever known, for transferring capital from one country to another

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by the flash of the electric cable, for the shipment of products by railway and steamship lines, and for carrying information on business and personal affairs round the earth. Invested in this mechanism alone are perhaps one hundred thousand millions of dollars, representing approximately the entire accumulated wealth of the United States during the one hundred and thirty-two years of their national life. A great war which involved important powers in Europe and America would mean the derangement of this machinery, the reduction of its earning power, and an appalling decline in the securities whose market value is based upon this earning power. Even the anticipation of such a conflict would cause the hasty withdrawal of international credit, the offering of securities at declining prices with few buyers, and a multitude of individual bankruptcies which would anticipate in many cases national bankruptcy. Foreign trade would be reduced to the hazardous position of contraband, and armored cruisers, bent on destruction, would chase from the seas the carriers of the food, clothing, and luxuries of the people at war.

It is difficult to measure fully all the evils which would flow from this slowing down and disuse of the existing mechanism of exchange. Steamships tied up because if they carried out freight it would be exposed to seizure by the enemy; cable offices closed because relations with belligerent countries were suspended; the stock markets reduced to idleness, interrupted by periods of feverish excitement, because capital was no longer forthcoming and no new securities, except those of the government, were being offered; the banks curtailing their credits to the solvent, because they had lost so largely by the insolvent; international bankers closing their doors, because they could no longer draw on their foreign credits or sell securities on foreign bourses; manufacturers of woolen and cotton cloths shutting down their mills because, as in the "Lancashire cotton famine" of 1861-65, they could no longer obtain their raw materials; manufacturers of cotton and mill machinery abandoning their plants, because throughout the world no new mills

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were being established or projected;—these would be among the many symptoms which would bring home to the average man who worked with hand or brain the evils and risks of war.

The world has not yet been subjected to the test of a real war on the soil of civilized countries under modern economic conditions The machinery of the international exchanges was still in its infancy even at the time of our Civil War, and was only a little further developed at the time of the three months of fighting which prostrated France at the feet of Germany in 1870. While railways and steamboats had been invented and put to use, the amount invested in these forms was a bagatelle which would have aroused in a Morgan or a Harriman a smile of contempt. Railways were of such doubtful value in the fifties that it required the strong support of the Bank of France to float their securities on the Continent. There was practically no international stock market between New York and Europe, because the ocean cable was not in effective operation. When the *Alabama* was fitted out in English ports to attack American commerce, that commerce had attained for the entire Union, in the peaceful year of 1860, a magnitude of $687,000,000 where in 1908 it was $3,000,000,000.

Not only would war interrupt the free operation of existing methods of exchange and impair the value of the great amounts invested in them, but this derangement would bring in its train suffering to individuals and communities, compared with which such sufferings in any previous war of modern times would be trifling. The machinery of exchange which has knit together all parts of the world has created relations of interdependence whose rupture would bring about intolerable conditions. The nations of western Europe not only depend in a large degree upon Russia and America for their bread; the mills of Birmingham and Calais depend for their raw material upon the cotton fields of Egypt and America. The very shoes which would cover the feet of contending armies would have to be made in large measure from the hides of Australia and the Argentine.

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The fate of labor would be a hard one, upon the whole, in a state of collapsing values and suspension of industries. It is impossible to anticipate in advance the exact course of events in each country which might become involved in a great war. It is highly probable that the suspension of gold payments would be adopted at once, as a precaution for retaining their gold, even by countries which were financially solvent. Mere suspension of coin redemption, such as occurred in France in 1870, would not in itself depreciate greatly the value of the paper currency, but if the war imposed serious strain upon national resources, it is highly probable that the gold reserves held by the banks would not be respected, but would be converted to the uses of the state, leaving the paper currency without adequate security. In such an event, gold would go to a steadily increasing premium, paper prices would become inflated, and the feverish prosperity which some would enjoy would come tardily even in appearance to the laborer, and not at all in fact, as paper prices constantly ran ahead of advances in paper wages.

In many respects the United States would occupy a stronger position than other powers if she was not assailed from Mexico or Canada. Relying with confidence upon the sufficiency of her food supplies, she would find also within her great area most of the materials for manufactured products and the machinery for turning them into finished goods. Her railway and telegraph systems would continue to operate safely and efficiently among ninety millions of people, even if cable communication was severed with the old world and the Orient. But the curtailment of foreign demand for nearly $2,000,000,000 of national products now exported, the withdrawal of foreign credits and foreign capital, and the consequent crash of values on her stock exchanges, would subject her to a greater strain than in any other previous crisis, because the interests involved have so enormously expanded.

Among the countries of Europe the demoralizing effects of a general war are almost too sickening for contemplation.

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Crashes on the stock exchange, the stoppage of dividends on industrial securities,—wiping out the income of widows and orphans, and other small investors,—the recall of international credits, and the offer of enormous loans for war purposes, would soon be followed by the closing of mills and factories which ministered to the comforts of the people in time of peace, the cutting off of food supplies, strikes and riots by operatives who faced starvation, and the constant clutch of the heavy hand of the state upon the lives and homes of the thousands of men needed as food for powder on the battle field or food for the fishes when $6,000,000 battle ships were puffed out of existence by a hostile shot or by the well directed blow of a torpedo boat.

What would be the result of a few years of these conditions? First, that the world of modern industry and growing comforts for the mass of men would cease to move forward; secondly, that as the old machinery deteriorated without renewal or extension, the world would begin to move backward. This would not mean necessarily that men could not keep on fighting. They did this during the Middle Ages and during the Thirty Years' War, until Europe was reduced almost to a wilderness, the precious heritage of Greek and Roman culture and even the fruits of Christianity were all but lost, and the remnants of the civilization of the west compared unfavorably with the culture and achievements of the Mohammedan Saracens.

A prolonged and expensive war between great powers would mean simply that the work of the past century in raising the standard of living, by means of the increased output of machinery and the inventive skill of thoughtful men, would be lost. Economic conditions would begin to retrograde, as they would in a socialistic state, where the scale of lowest efficiency became the standard of all. The modern world would hark back to the desolated fields, the weed-grown roads, the abandoned aqueducts, the broken bridges, and the ruined homes which succeeded the collapse of the power of Rome.

When peace came, it would come to a world exhausted,

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as was France when Napoleon returned from Elba, by the sacrifice of a large portion of its adult workers. It would come to a world whose productive machinery had become antiquated where it had not been destroyed or abandoned, and which was capable only of supplying the absolutely necessary wants of those who survived. The long arduous work of statesmen, inventors, and organizers of industry would lie in a heap of ruins, and communities which had once been civilized would have to begin almost at the foundation the reconstruction of industrial society.

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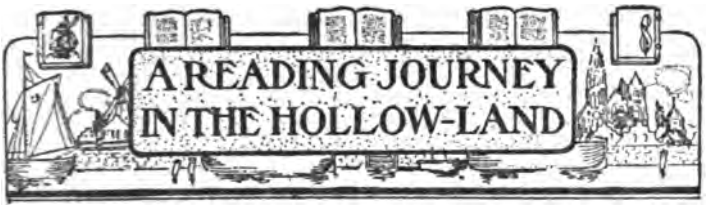


# Tulip Bulb Culture--Draining The Polders and the Zuider Zee--The Fens--The Universities of Leyden and Groningen-Delft--The Magnificent System of Charities--St. Anna's Hofje--Scheveningen.*

By George Wharton Edwards.

THE Dutch are wholly practical and it may be said that their reputation as gardeners is an entirely commercial one. But we will not go beneath the surface in this paper, preferring to consider the exquisite pictures which we find from the artistic standpoint. I am told that there is no estheticism among the Dutch, but considering their use of pink and green paint, used with such delightful result upon their boats and their houses, I am strongly tempted to deny this assertion. Traveling through Leyden to Haarlem one passes through exquisite fields, flooded with broad sheets of scarlet and white and yellow tulips, with occasional groups of the peasants, busily working between the rows. The effect is always unique, and I would advise the traveler to climb up to the top of one of the mills for the best view. The bulb is generally grown, not for the flower but for the "onion," as it is called, and my Dutch friend tells me that in the season hundreds of tons of the blossoms are allowed to decay and are thrown on these beds as fertilizer. The cultivation of tulips is a great business for the Nether-

*The "Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land" began in the September CHAUTAUQUAN and will continue through May.

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lander, and we all remember the stories of the great tulip "bubble," when thousands of florins were paid for one particular bulb, and when one single "Semper Augustus" was sold for 13,000 florins and the government intervened, the law against gambling was enforced, and the price of tulips fell to nothing. Dealers were beggared in a single night. It was Cornelius van Baerle's black tulip which won the prize, offered by the Horticultural Society at Haarlem. The prize was one hundred thousand florins!

It was in 1637 that this extraordinary mania took possession of the Dutch, and the merchants became so infatuated that not only they, but nearly every other citizen became engaged in it. The traffic in the bulbs was conducted with great formality by officers who signed, sealed, and delivered deeds of transfer. We are told one variety named the "Viceroy" which was sold for 2,500 guilders; and another "Semper Augustus" for a new carriage and pair of "gray"horse and 4,600 guilders besides! Of this last named bulb, only two were supposed to be in existence, one at Amsterdam and the other at Haarlem. Signed contracts were delivered and immense sums of money paid for bulbs never seen by either buyer or seller. They were bought and sold only with reference to the rise and fall of their hypothetical value. We are told of an estate in one case which had to be sold to meet the deficiency of a speculator, who had bound himself to deliver a bulb by a certain day, the nominal value of which kept rising in consequence of the refusal of the owner to part with it. Fortunes were thus rapidly made and lost, and when, at length, the bubble burst, a panic entailing ruin and despair followed. We read of one town, alone, in which was invested in hypothetical tulips more than 10,000,000 guilders.

For many years the question has been debated, shall the Zuider Zee be drained, and many schemes have been brought before the authorities to reclaim the area, lying within a line drawn from Enkhuizen to the Island of Urk and from thence to Kampen. Another scheme provides for the carrying on of the work in a system of large sections by

means of an embankment from Wieringen to the Frisian coast, seventeen feet above high water mark, and carrying a railway and a broad road for general traffic. Both plans provide for a deep and wide canal to Amsterdam. Thirty years is the estimated time required for the work, at a cost of many millions of dollars. It is not money alone which prevents this great improvement, nor yet is it the engineering difficulties. It is questioned whether or not the reclaimed Polder would be fruitful enough for farms, but it would seem as if the authorities were satisfied upon this point, for the work has begun already. The land reclaimed is to be sold to the peasantry for nominal sums.

The great Fen district lies in the provinces of Drenthe and Groningen. It may be described broadly as a vast expanse of sad, russet-colored prairie, dotted with flocks of sheep, tended by solitary shepherds. Once a vast forest, the trees of which decayed and fell and rotted away, the land lay undisturbed for centuries. Now canals have been dug miles across the country with others intersecting at right angles and the water drained from the sodden soil. Collections of huts and picturesque dwellings are seen here and there, inhabited by the peat-cutters. It is extremely dispiriting to watch the laborers at work. They wear especially made boots which protect them and with sharp-edged spades cut out the lumps of soggy peat in a very expert manner. The workmen stack these small pieces in barrow loads and they are then taken to one side, where they are piled with places between giving free circulation to the air which dries them rapidly and the cubes are then ready for market. Huge barges carry the peat to market, bringing back sweepings and refuse from the town which is spread over the soil to fill the excavations. Here are gathered the famous "Fen colonies," and there is a certain amount of stir and traffic to be seen. The government maintains these communities as a sort of charity and the work is carried on mainly by pauper labor. The result, I am told, is not even self-supporting, a large deficit having to be met every year. The relief of the poor, thought it is part of the work of the local authorities, is

in a great degree, a charge imposed upon the churches, each religious body accepting the burden of its own poor; almost all of them maintain their own alms-houses, and some of them even their own hospitals.

The chief of the penal colonies is at Veenhuizen and convicted beggars and tramps who are able-bodied, and also those who have been arrested for drunkenness three times within twelve months, are sent here for periods of from three months to three years. This is only the case with men, female convicts being sent to Rotterdam. There are three of these colonies in which are over 3,000 convicts. They live in barracks, are fed on black bread with no luxuries whatever, and earn on an average one shilling a week, one-third of which is retained by the authorities until the release of the convict. They do all sorts of work, farming, tailoring, weaving, and shoe-making. They manufacture nearly all that they require for their own needs. The life seems to be attractive for I am told the same convicts return to the colonies year after year. The authorities think the existence of the colonies is justified by the fact that by its means thousands of idle men are kept off the streets but the State does not intend, it is said, to extend the system and it gives as a reason the fact that such colonies have never exerted an educative influence and that it is doubtful if the inmates are ever really reformed, for it has been discovered that many of the inmates are sent here with the connivance of the authorities, that is to say, the police, especially during the severe winter season. But it must be said that the system is carried on in an altogether admirable manner which we might well emulate in America.

There are in Holland three great universities, Leyden, which was established in 1575; Groningen, 1614; Utrecht, in 1634. The first named was for two centuries the most famous in Europe, far more renowned in the seventeenth century than were Oxford, Cambridge, or Paris. Some of the scholars of the age, such as Scaliger, Grotius, Arminius, Gomarus, and Descartes, were connected with it. It is still well-known, principally as a school of medicine and science.

Fielding, the novelist, is reported to have been a pupil, as was Oliver Goldsmith. The library is the finest in all Holland, containing some 300,000 volumes and a collection of priceless and unique manuscripts. The University of Groningen is now less fashionable than that of Leyden, but it is in a flourishing condition and its handsome buildings ornament the town. I did not gain entrance to it, however. Of the University of Utrecht, I am unable to speak with authority for my time in that town was very brief and I only saw it from a distance. Those who wish to read upon this point may consult Boswell's amusing letters to Dr. Johnson.

One of the quaintest spots in the whole of the Netherlands is "St. Anna's Hofje," or alms-house at Leyden. My Dutch friend brought me to the doorway in the "Hooigracht" which is marked St. Anna's "Hofgen," which means alms-house. The door was open and gave upon a long passage leading to a little, cloistered square. One seemed to have stepped back into the seventeenth century and perhaps the buildings existed as they now stand, away back in 1492, when the alms-house was built. The buildings are all out of perpendicular. There is a quaint little chapel, about twelve feet square, which I am informed has not been changed in any feature since that date. There is a painting here by Lucas van Leidan, and above the chapel is the tiny room of the priest, containing the furniture as he left it, his confessional chair, the small, oak-paneled recess for his bed, his copper warming-pan, and the iron chest for his collections. Here, living in delightful quietude, live thirteen nice, clean, old ladies, who seem perfectly happy and who greet one with great politeness. Each old lady has a room to herself with a little wall bed in a cupboard with nice, clean sheets and pillow, and a pantry containing a cup and saucer, a plate, a bowl, a knife and fork, and a towel. Nothing in the place is out of order or out of place. Above the general living-room is the kitchen, which is likewise of delightful cleanliness. One old lady pointed out the flat stone before the chapel marking the entrance to the secret passage from the cloisters to the church. I have a lively recollection

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of the charming smile and the low courtesy which the old lady made when I dropped a small piece of silver in her hand.

Everything about Groningen seems in good order and very prosperous. Scattered all about are the handsome, well-kept habitations of the farmer, sometimes three-story, stone, or brick houses, well-built and substantial, with a hedge-like row of clipped trees and before these neat gardens with grass plots and bright flowers. At the back of the house which its peaks often overtop, is the huge, red-tiled roof of the barn, large enough for the complete housing of the crops, for the comfortable accommodation of its live stock and much besides. On every side is the evidence of wealth, and the absence of poverty suggests the richness of the soil, and a most skilful and industrious people. Here is the town pump about which a throng of women and girls were waiting in turn to fill the pails that hung from wooden, brass-bound, green-painted neck-yokes. They were chatting gaily quite heedless of the rain which had begun to fall. Evidently their stout, woolen dresses could not be injured and certainly they themselves looked hearty enough to withstand any amount of such exposure. Like all the women of their class, their heads bore the marvelous cap of the province which consists of a closely fitting cap or *muts* of white cotton, another, equally close, of black silk, and over these a solid plaque of shining gold or silver covering the whole head, save a small space at the crown. The side pieces like wings stretch upwards from beside each eye. They are not quite as large as the blinders of a horse's bridle, and the band by which these are joined at the back is three inches wide. This is the head gear, worn by the working women even in the early morning, but on fête days and Sunday they wear the added decoration of engraved, embossed, or filigree ornaments of the same metal nearly two inches across, attached to the front of the plate, and making the effect of gold or silver rosettes besides each eye. On unusual occasions they will wear a fourth covering of very thin lace drawn close over the forehead and hanging in a full cape behind. I went

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to buy one of these gold plaques as a curiosity, not knowing its value. The cheapest one, I found, was priced one hundred and ten gulden, about $55 in our money. The silver ones, of course, are cheaper, but still very costly. At last I found one of gilded brass but I was told with disdain by the shop-keeper that no peasant girl would sacrifice her self-respect and wear a thing like that. Alas, I saw in the street as I came out of the shop, a peasant woman of the better class, wearing her beautiful lace cap, on which was perched a most atrocious French bonnet with a bunch of impossible fruit and flowers and surmounted by a long black ostrich feather. Thus has the fashion of Paris penetrated even to this out-of-the-way spot.

Although it was summer time I do not remember of ever seeing an open window in a private house in the Netherlands. They are generally curtained with lace and have a vase of flowers conspicuously displayed. Glancing within, the people seem to the casual observer continually occupied in making and drinking tea, for there is generally seen on a polished mahogany table, a lavishly brass-bound pail of burning peat, with a polished hot water kettle over it, all ready for instant use. There is something very engaging in a country which can so serenely preserve its original character amid the whirl of twentieth century changes, where you can buy a good cigar for a cent, and an American woman would be followed, and her costume smiled at, by a peasant wearing the absurd French bonnet to which I have alluded. To the very comfortable hotel we returned to pass the night and found a very good supper of boiled eggs, veal cutlets, many varieties of cheese and hot tea, fresh from a neat little kitchen all shining with brass, bright tiles, and reminding one of the old-fashioned bath-tub. But one must not believe in the exaggeration of the guide book. There are to be found in the Netherlands no such ridiculous customs and contrasts as they would have you believe. The keels of ships do *not* float above the chimneys of the houses nor does the frog, croaking in the bulrushes, gaze upon the swallows upon the house-tops.

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And now let us go down to the North Sea, and see how the Dutch people enjoy themselves in the summer. Of course the largest of the watering-places in the Netherlands is Scheveningen, and it has a splendid bathing beach which makes it an attractive resort for fashionable Germans and Hollanders, and for summer travelers from all over the world. At the top of the long dyke is a row of hotels and restaurants, and when one reaches this point after passing through the lovely old wood of stately trees, one is suddenly ushered into the twentieth century, for here is all fashion and gay life yet with a character all its own. Along the edge of the beach are the bathing machines in scores, and behind them are long lines of covered wicker chairs of peculiar form, each with its footstool where one may sit, shaded from the sun, and sheltered from the wind, and read, chat, or doze by the hour. Bath women are seen quaintly clad with their baskets of bathing dresses and labeled with the signs bearing their names, such as "Trintje" or "Netje;" everywhere there are sightseers, pedlars calling their wares, children digging in the sand, strolling players performing and the sound of bands of music in the distance. So there is no lack of amusement here during the season. The spacious "Kurhaus" with its verandas and "Kursaal" which is large enough to accommodate 2,500 people, is in the center of the dyke. There are concerts every evening, and although the town is filled with hotels, during the months of June, July, August, and September, they are quite monopolized by the Hollanders and the prices are very high. The magnificent pier is 450 yards long. The charges for bathing are very moderate, varying from twenty cents for a small bathing box, to fifty cents for a large one, including the towels. Bathing costume ranges from five to twenty-five cents. The tickets are numbered, and as soon as a machine is vacant a number is called by the "bad man" and the holder of the corresponding number claims the machine. The basket chairs cost for the whole day only twenty cents, Dutch money. One may obtain a subscription to the "Kurhaus" at a surprisingly reasonable rate for the

Canal, Utrecht.

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The Old Canal, Utrecht.

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**Street in Leyden.**

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View of Delft. By Jan Vermeer of Delft. In the Hague Museum.

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Statue of Hugo Grotius, Delft.

**City Hall, Delft.**

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Mill, North Holland.

**The Rhine, Leyden.**

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North Holland Headdress.

North Holland Type.

Friesland Headdress.

Haarlem Costume and Headdress.

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Public Hall of Peculiar Architecture, Haarlem.

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The Bathing Beach, Scheveningen.

On the Beach, Scheveningen.

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The Kurhaus, Scheveningen.

**The Cathedral, Haarlem.**

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day, week or season. There is a daily orchestra; ballet, and operatic concerts once a week; dramatic performances and frequent hops throughout the season. There is a local saying that when good Dutchmen die they go to Scheveningen, and this is certainly their heaven. To stand on the pier on a fine day during the season, looking down on these long lines of wicker chairs, turned seaward, is an astonishing sight. They are shaped somewhat like huge snail shells and around these the children delight to dig in the sand, throwing up miniature dunes around one. Perhaps no seashore in the world has been painted so much as Scheveningen. Mesdag, Maris, Alfred Stevens, to name only a few of the artists, have found here themes for many paintings and the scene is a wonderful one when the homing fleet of "Boms," as the fishing-boats are called, appears in the offing to be welcomed by the fisherwomen. There are other smaller watering-places on the coast but Scheveningen is unique.

In the little fishing-town itself, the scene on the return of the men is very interesting. Women and children are busily hurrying about from house to house, and everywhere in the little streets are strange signs chalked up on the shutters, such as "water en vuur te koop," that is, "fire and water for sale;" and here are neatly painted buckets of iron each having a kettle of boiling water over it and a lump of burning turf at the bottom. Fish is being cleaned; the gin shops are well patronized for it seems a common habit in this moist northern climate to frequently take "Een sneeuwballetje" of gin and sugar which does not taste at all badly, be it said. All sorts of strange-looking people are met in the little narrow street, and all doing strange-looking things but with the air of its being in no wise unusual with them. All in all, Scheveningen is an entertaining spot in which to linger.

The names of the fishing boats are sufficiently curious to demand space. In the summer the herring fishery is carried on from the towns of Scheveningen, Vlaardingen, Maasluis, Katwijk, Noordwijk, the Helder, and the South Holland Island villages, Middel Harnis, Pernis, and Zwuarte-

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**The Pier, Scheveningen.**

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waal. The boats are named *Hooker, Hoekerbuis, Logger, Sloop, Bom, Tjalk;* and in these boats, which are known in English as busses, sword-pinks, flat-bottoms, and Holland toads, the fishing industry is carried on. In the discovery of 1380 by Willen Beukelszoon, native of the Zeeland village of Biervliet, of the art of preserving the herring with salt, the Dutch fisheries became extremely profitable and the method of preserving the fish is, I am told, the same today. These strangely named boats patrol all the seas, practically, of the North, and even in the winter there is a considerable industry in the cod fishery. The "buss" is the oldest known model of all. Models of these may be seen hanging from the ceiling of the church at Maasluis but the large, square, flat-bottomed "boms" which we see on the beach at Scheveningen are the most familiar of all, and they came into being from the fact that most of the towns on the coast are without harbors and they are required to run up on the sand. In the month of June which was called the herring month in the olden time, the herring hunters, bearing the blue flag at the masthead, pursued the herring in the North Sea, and eagerly the town of Vlaardingen watched for the first sight of the returning vessels. The people thronged to the dykes and when the blue flag was run up on the tower, they all shouted the song called "Die Nieuwe Harang." When the catch was brought ashore there was tremendous excitement among the buyers as to which should purchase the first herring, the price of which was often absurd. But all this is now a thing of the past, and at the present day Vlaardingen pays, I am told, but little attention to the herring, cod and haddock having taken its place.

Delft, which in the eighteenth century was so celebrated the world over for its pottery and porcelain, has lately revived the industry in a very modern manufactory. It cannot be said, however, that the Delft ware of the present day equals in any respect the beautiful workmanship of old. There is an interesting institution, the town hospital, which contains four remarkable, anatomical pictures, one of which is said to be the earliest painting of the kind and was exe-

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cuted in 1617 by Mierevelt. The other two are of later date. One should visit here the celebrated model room of the dock yard which contains many remarkable models of ships and mills. Near the Rotterdam gate is a large, gloomy building, partly surrounded by water and showing the arms of the Dutch Republic. It was originally used as a warehouse by the East India Company. On the "Oude Delft" is the "Prinsehof," the scene of the assassination of William of Orange, the founder of Dutch independence, who was assassinated here on the 10th of July, 1584. The spot where the tragedy took place is on the first floor by the staircase. The murderer was a Burgundian, Balthasar Gerard, who, prompted by a desire for gain, lay in wait for his victim and shot him when he descended the staircase. The custodian grimly points out the mark left by the fatal bullet. The assassin's fate was a horrible one. He was torn to pieces by red hot pinchers. The fine Gothic "Oude Kerk" with a leaning tower enshrines the monument of Admiral Tromp, victor of thirty-two naval battles. It was he who, defeating the English fleet under Blake, lashed a broom to his masthead, signifying that he had swept the sea. There is also here a monument to Piet Hein, the admiral of the India Company, who in 1628 captured the Spanish silver fleet, valued at 12,000,000 florins. In the Niewe Kerk is a magnificent monument, the work of Hendrik de Keyser and A. Quellin, erected in 1621, to the memory of William of Orange. The great Prince sculptured in marble, reclines on a black sarcophagus at full length beneath a sort of canopy upheld by four curious pillars, cut in marble. There are four allegorical figures, Liberty, Justice, Prudence, and Religion. At the statue's head is another in bronze, showing William in full military uniform. The bronze figure of Fame with outspread wings is at the foot. Below the feet lies the Prince's favorite dog who saved his life in 1572 at his camp at Malines in Belgium when he was attacked by two Spanish assassins. Here likewise repose the remains of his wife and his son, Prince Maurice. Hugo Grotius also lies here underneath a very simple monument.

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There are some fine paintings in the handsome Stadhuis in the market-place. What is called a "corporation piece" shows a great number of gesticulating figures signed by J. W. Delph, 1592. These are said to be the "Arquebusiers." There are also here a large number of portraits of the Princes of Orange. The town is a quiet and silent place, a veritable "drowsietown." The Earl of Leicester, visiting it in 1585, describes it as "another London almost, for beauty and fairness." Sir Robert Cecil traveling in Holland in 1588 recorded it as "the finest built town he ever saw." Pepys called it "a most sweet towne," and many other more modern writers have followed suit and have praised it.

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# VII. The Animal Painters, Painters of Architecture and of Still Life.*

By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor of the History of Art in the University of Chicago.

THE painters who formed the subject of last month's article in this series were all distinguished by nonconformity to the popular demand for a human or figure interest in landscape paintings. Wherever figures were introduced into their works they were of such small size and of such mediocre execution that they added little to the general effect. Those painters cared as little for animals as for human figures in their devotion to the definite and often poetic interpretation of their native land. They depicted with line and color more eloquent than words the poetry of their country with it luminous skies, and its moisture-laden atmosphere; they portrayed the beauty of its canals, and its fields, its villages, and its forests and this with an infinite variety that never wearies. By this they earned the distinction of forming the first great school of landscape painters. Just as their work is a culmination along certain lines, so there is another group whose work represents the culmination of Dutch painting in the combination of figures with landscape. The predominating interest of this group seemed to lie in the painting of animals, although they introduced also human figures. And

*Articles of this series which have already appeared are: "Frans Hals and the Portraits" (September); "Rembrandt" (October); "Rembrandt and His Pupils" (November); "Painters of Domestic Scenes" (December); "Painters of the Peasantry" (January); "Landscape and Marine Painters" (February).

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always by the workmanship, size and color of their men and animals they gave to them such importance that their landscape backgrounds held the place of an accessory.

The most famous of the animal painters was Paul Potter. Born at Enkhuisen, a small fishing village in the Zuider Zee, in 1625, he was, while still a child, taken to Amsterdam. There he received his first instruction from his father, Pieter Potter, who was a landscape painter. Later he was sent to Haarlem to study under Jacob de Weth, as is proved by the latter's entry in his sketch book: "In the year 1642 P. Potter came to me to learn painting for eight pounds a year." Both his father and de Weth were men of but mediocre ability, and from the recorded facts and from the internal evidence of his pictures Paul Potter seems to have been uninfluenced by any of the truly great Dutch painters but to have worked out his art by means of his own observation of nature. He turned early to the study of animals and was zealous in producing drawings of oxen, cows, horses, pigs, and goats which he found in the fields about the city. In this way he early learned their anatomy and their habits, as well as the trees and plants among which they lived.

In 1646 he removed to Delft where he worked incessantly for two years and where he was chosen a member of the Corporation of Saint Luke when he was only twenty years of age. In 1649 we find him at the Hague received into the painters' guild as a "master painter." Here he was encouraged and patronized by the Princess Amelia von Solms and by Count John Maurice of Nassau, Governor of the Duchy of Cleves. In 1650 he sued for the hand of the daughter of Balckeneijnde, the architect, who objected to a mere "painter of animals" as a son-in-law. Thereupon Potter enlisted in his cause some of the best people of the Hague, who persuaded the good architect that the young man was entirely worthy of the alliance, and as a result, his marriage took place upon the third of July, 1650. In 1652 he again changed his residence, this time to Amsterdam where he received aid and encouragement from Dr. Nico-

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laas Tulp, a powerful patron of arts, who has already appeared in these studies as the friend and patron of Rembrandt, and as the principal figure in the latter's "Anatomy Lesson." Little is known of the two years of Potter's life in Amsterdam, but the dates of his pictures prove that he was actively at work. That his fame was spreading beyond the boundaries of Holland is shown by more than one anecdote. In 1652 a French dealer who was looking for pictures for Queen Christine of Sweden, wrote to her: "I have seen and considered three or four times an easel landscape upon canvas done by a painter named Potter, who swore to me that he had spent five months, without intervals, in perfecting it. It is admired by all the painters, and, to tell the truth, nothing could be more curiously done. There is not the single feature of a cow nor horse nor ram nor sheep, nor a tree nor a herb which you are not forced to admire. I took the liberty of offering the painter 300 francs for it. He replied that he would sell it for 400, but at that price only that his name might be made known in Sweden. I do assure you that I have never seen a more curious picture."

Various stories are told of our painter's ceaseless activity in his profession. His wife complained that whenever she persuaded him to take a walk in the country for the benefit of his health, he spent the time making sketches of the animals that he saw about him. Always a prodigious worker, he seems to have undermined his already weak constitution by his incessant labor so that he died in 1654 at but little more than twenty-eight years of age.

It was in 1647 when living at Delft, and when only twenty-two years old that Potter painted "The Young Bull," now at the Hague, which has done more than any of his other pictures to make his name famous. As the principal object in the picture the bull occupies the center of the canvas. It is indeed a *portrait* of a bull, and is often referred to as "The Bull." It is brought out prominently by its dark mass being outlined against the lighter sky. But the fact that the bull is the center of interest is not sufficient

reason for painting other parts of the picture carelessly; the sheep in the lower left hand corner look in the original as if made of chalk or putty; also the shepherd's left arm and his shoulder are inaccurately drawn. The photograph from which our reproduction was made having been overexposed emphasizes the darks of the fields and the clouds to the right; it fails, also, to show the minute character of the workmanship. This latter is more clearly indicated by the detail of the creature's head, which also shows that more light is falling on the bull than appears in our illustration of the whole picture. It seems as if the painter tried to paint every hair of the animal's hide while he lavished the same painstaking care upon the flies buzzing about the beast, the toad on the ground and the bark of the tree. The fame of Paul Potter and his bull arose at the time when the fashion in art favored the smooth finish and elaboration of detail of artists like Gerard Dou and Van Mieris. But such masters of the infinitely little have not progressed beyond the elements of their art. Their many details are a mistake, because they confuse the eye, which wanders all over the picture without finding a resting place. A great artist always synthesises, always combines, never tells all he knows. With all his limitations Potter could draw with amazing accuracy; he could represent the very anatomy of his animals, he could do even more, he could, to a certain extent, suggest something of the nature of his creatures. The portrait of "The Young Bull" is as clearly individualized as many a human portrait by Potter's contemporaries. As John C. Van Dyke says, "There is the air and the braggadocio, the alertness, and the smartness of a two-year-old about the beast." But the possession of one or two good qualities never makes a picture a great work of art; it must possess not one but many of the best elements of great art. Therefore, it must be admitted that "The Bull" is more famous than fine, more astonishing than pleasing, more amazing than beautiful, more a display of patience than of artistic qualities. The animals in this picture are of life size, so that the whole painting is eight feet six inches in height

and nine feet ten inches in width. Potter seems to have realized that such proportions were not suited to his ability, for, with the exception of "The Bear Hunt," a large work in the Amsterdam Museum, he afterwards painted very small pictures, such as the two here reproduced. These are pleasanter and more successful, simply because the painter's detailed method of rendering, and his limited view of what a picture ought to be are better suited to canvases of small dimensions. One of the best of these, "The Cow Reflected in the Stream," in the Hague gallery, is only one foot and four inches in height. In "The Young Bull" the light comes from nowhere in particular and casts no shadows. In his later paintings the artist makes his light cold and dull, but in this little painting he has caught something of the freshness of the summer morning with a light that is at once soft and clear. The way in which he contrasts the triangle of the dark earth, and trees and cottages with the triangle of the light sky; the tender skill with which the animals are reflected in the stream, the delicate precision of the workmanship in the drawing of the foliage and the outlines of the beasts make this a far better and more pleasing picture than his more famous "Bull."

In "The Dairy Farm near the Hague," now in Grosvenor House, London, Potter produced another successful composition. By the simple means of yellow paint of just the proper tone the artist has beautifully suggested the glowing rays of the departing sun as it casts long shadows across the grass and lights up the backs of the reclining animals. The careful painting of the leaves and the repetition of the tree trunks make a pleasant pattern for the eye. Yet, even here there is not sufficient concentration; the interest is scattered as it would be in a scene in real nature. These two pictures are typical of Potter's work. In his many small and pleasing canvases he usually represents, as here, a group of cattle beside a few willows in the foreground and a wide view of meadows stretching far away to the left. But it must be acknowledged that he is not usually so successful as here in many of his paintings. His

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The Young Bull. By Paul Potter. In the Hague Gallery.

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Head of the Young Bull. (Detail.) By Paul Potter. In the Hague Gallery.

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figures of men and animals are often scattered aimlessly about the foreground while the distant landscape seems to have little connection with the chief scene. That his contemporaries were delighted with these little pictures and were willing to pay good prices for them, while they let the masterpieces of Ruisdael and Hobbema go begging, merely tends to prove our contention that beginners in art appreciation prefer in art what they prefer in life. The Dutchmen of Potter's day were interested in the cattle, sheep, and goats of their farm yards, whereas they were indifferent to the higher beauties of nature which Ruisdael's pictures offered them. In the same way, today clever drawings of pretty women and anecdotal pictures of children find a more ready market than the most serious work of our greatest artists. Art has more to do with workmanship than with subject, yet the uninitiated will continue to be attracted to their favorite subjects rather than to the purely artistic qualities of line, harmony, color, and majesty of composition. That the writer is not alone in this opinion may be seen from the following passage about Potter by no less an authority than Sir Walter Armstrong: "Many of his pictures, including the notorious 'Bull,' are scarcely works of art at all. They are monuments of patience, of skill, and of judgment in selection. Unhappily his selection is not strictly that of an artist. He selects *for the sake of imitation not for that of esthetic unity*. He cannot hope to paint every hair upon a cow's back, so he elaborates many a touch to suggest them. But the touch has no charm in itself—it expresses hair, but not Paul Potter, which means that Potter had nothing but hair to express. The interest of his pictures is always objective. We enjoy them, so far as we enjoy them at all, for the pale reflection they give of what we may still see from a train in Holland. We might get something like it if we held up a steel mirror to a Dutch meadow. It shows no human personality."* The italics are our own.

The remarkable thing about Potter then is not the ar-

*"The Peel Collection and the Dutch School of Painting," by Sir Walter Armstrong, pp. 72-73.

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The Cow Reflected in the Stream. By Paul Potter. In the Hague Gallery.

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River Scene. By Aelbert Cuyp. In the Berlin Museum.

Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York

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Landscape with Cattle and Figures—Evening. By Aelbert Cuyp. In the National Gallery, London.
*Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.*

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Landscape with Cattle. By Aelbert Cuyp. In the Metropolitan Museum, New York.

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The Enraged Swan (The Watchfulness of Jan de Witt). By Jan Asselyn. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

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Street in Haarlem. By Gerrit Berck-Haijde. In the Brussels Museum.

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Interior of Old Church, Delft. Bv Gerrit Houckgeest. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

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tistic qualities of his paintings, but his precocity and success as a young man. At the age of fifteen he was a recognized artist, at eighteen he executed an etching, "The Herdsman," which shows great skill, and at twenty he was chosen a member of the Corporation of Saint Luke in Delft. His industry was prodigious and his patience untiring. At twenty-two he had painted "The Young Bull," a remarkable performance for so young a man, and he died at the age of twenty-eight years and two months, after having produced nearly one hundred and fifty paintings, a few etchings and innumerable studies. He seems to have been largely self-made, and to have had the limitations of many self-made men, to have believed that art should be imitation, whereas it should be interpretation. His pictures are not synthetic, not creative; his composition is unstudied, almost haphazard, as though he put things down as he saw them, and not as though arranged into a symmetrical and unified whole. His animals seem brittle, seem cut out of wood or moulded out of plaster, his color is cold; his lighting sometimes uncertain, and his work is nearly always lacking in the personal element. In a word, he was not a picture maker, a great artist, like Rembrandt and Hobbema, Metsu and Terborch, but an imitator, a slavish follower of nature as it is.

It should not appear that we are inconsistent in having praised Ruisdael's fidelity to nature whereas we now decry Potter's careful imitation. In either case only a half truth is told. A great artist must paint pictures that bear a semblance to nature, but the semblance is only apparent, for pigments mixed with oil and placed upon canvas are no more real nature than the mimic world of the theater is life. Nature supplies the elements, the raw materials of artistic expression, and, within certain limitations, these must be true, but they are combined and arranged into a new language, the language of art. Potter was always a student of the elements, and he never sufficiently mastered them to become a truly great artist, a creator of things new and beautiful and true. There is no telling how far he might

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have gone if he had lived. He had made the right beginning in his study of nature, and he might have learned to harmonize and synthesize the elements of his art. Still with his view of what constitutes a picture, with his limitations as a colorist, and with his over-elaboration it is more than doubtful if he could ever have approached the supreme masters of the school.

As Paul Potter's name has been spread abroad and his work has been over-praised, so the name of Aelbert Cuyp has at times been disregarded and his paintings neglected. Potter was a man with one theme, one point of view, a painter of talent whose very limitations were in favor of his popularity. Cuyp, on the other hand, was one of the geniuses of the school, a great master in many lines. We have noted that Jan Steen was distinguished by being the most versatile of the genre painters; that Ruisdael showed the greatest variety among the painters of pure landscape, but Cuyp, with the single exception of Rembrandt, was the most many sided of all the Dutchmen. In a word, he painted all classes of subjects, and, within certain natural limits, he always adapted his methods to his ends. He has left canvases in every department of art: still-life and animal paintings, landscapes and marines, portraits and historical paintings; and, at least one religious picture, Christ's "Entry into Jerusalem," in Glasgow, is ascribed to him. He did not confine himself to one kind of landscape. He painted the hills and valleys as well as the flat fields of Holland, sometimes under the glowing light of morning, again beneath the heat of the noontide sun, and often with the golden rays of evening. He painted sea pieces and river views and the shipping seen across the canal better than most marine painters of the time. He was no less successful in moonlight and snow scenes in which his gradations of color and tone excelled that of Van der Neer. He painted horse fairs and cavalry battles as well as Wouverman; and pictures of birds that are as good as those by Hondecoeter; he was also skilful in representing interiors of churches, as well as fruit and flower pieces; and his equestrian portraits

are familiar to all visitors to European galleries. Nothing Dutch seemed foreign to his interest, nothing human unworthy of his brush, and, what is as important as this astonishing versatility, he painted supremely well; he was not a mere transcriber of nature, but a creative artist of very high rank, a maker of pictures.

In this wide range it is natural that he discovered favorite subjects; in fact he seems to have loved to paint above all else the Meuse valley, floodcd with sunlight and populated by his great, strong, patient cattle and his horses. Entirely aside from all his other achievements he is undoubtedly the greatest of the animal painters of his school In spite of this he was little thought of in Holland for a century after his death, and as the English were the first to appreciate him, he is best represented in the public and private galleries of Great Britain, where he must be studied to be fully understood. His two pictures in the Metropolitan Museum, New York, do not represent him at his best.

Cuyp was born in Dordrecht in 1620 and studied under the direction of his father, Jakob Gerritz Cuyp, a landscape painter. Little is known of his life except that he was married in 1658, was a man of means, and lived on his estate, Dorwick, near Dordrecht, was held in high honor in his native city and died in 1691. His artistic career may be divided into three periods, in the first of which he was influenced by Van Goyen, who seems to have inspired him with one of the latter's favorite themes, a group of ships at anchor seen across the quiet water of a canal or river and the whole flooded by sunlight. But even in his earlier works he was more vigorous than the somewhat timid Van Goyen, a more skilful painter, and a better colorist. It is during what may be called his second period that he attained to his own peculiar manner, and painted the numerous river scenes with cattle lying on the banks or horsemen gathering for the chase. In his third period he deteriorates, his pictures become less bright because of the dark underpainting, and his work, under the influence of Wouverman, becomes spotty and cold. It is one of the remarkable things

in the history of art that Cuyp, a painter of genius, thus in his declining years, comes under the influence of Wouverman, a man possessing nothing more than talent. In the present article we have to do only with the output of Cuyp's second period, which was his best.

In the "River Scene" from the Berlin Gallery the cattle are only so many spots of color in the foreground, while the glory of the picture is the glowing landscape and the tranquil river which reflects the forms of the boats and the outlines of the village in the distance at the left. In "The Landscape with Cattle and Figures—Evening" in the National Gallery, London, the interest is equally divided between the animate and the inanimate objects. The picture is partly enframed by the trees and foliage at the upper right hand corner, and the branches at the lower left corner. As in many of his pictures the master has painted the weeds and flowers of the foreground with considerable care; he has emphasized the bright colors of the costumes and the browns, reds, and whites of the animals, contrasting them by this means with the melting outlines of the distant hill and the vague forms of the departing horsemen. In this painting, as always, he shows an intimate knowledge of animal nature; he interprets the far-off, sleepy gaze of the cattle, and the playfulness of the little dogs. Here, as in the Berlin picture, he approaches the triangular arrangement so often met with in Dutch paintings, where the dark of the earth is contrasted with the light of the sky. As in this picture from the National Gallery, he often emphasizes the foreground by the vigorous painting of the near-by objects thus helping to throw back the distant landscape.

In "The Landscape with Cattle" in the Metropolitan Museum, New York, the artist has arranged the animals into a compact group which immediately attracts the attention while the landscape is reduced to its lowest terms. In his pictures of animals there is none of Potter's insistence on detail; one brush stroke suffices to indicate not one, but a hundred hairs. There is a breadth of vision and a largeness of execution which one feels is the expression of a

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great man. Cuyp's cattle are never brittle like Potter's, they are never stuck on, as it were, an excrescence or an afterthought. They seem to be living, breathing creatures placed in their natural surroundings. Cuyp was fond of contrasts in his pictures; he contrasts adults with children, huge, bulky cattle with sheep and goats, and the brownish hues of cattle with amber tints in the sky, dark foregrounds with sparkling waters. He was a master workman, who did not thinly tint his careful drawings, but who knew how to handle the brush and to put on paint. He knew when to depart from the appearances of nature for artistic effect, in both form and color, and in all this he was original. In a word, he was great as a painter and as a colorist. The strongest impression that one carries away from the contemplation of his pictures is of glowing skies and golden atmosphere. He was a master of aerial perspective, and whether his subjects are the shipping on a river, cattle or horsemen by the shore, or even a small portrait he is able by his subtle art to suggest the circumambient atmosphere, which is the source of color and of life. He is equally successful in rendering the cool freshness of the morning, the bright light of noonday, and the warm glow of a clear sunset.

It is not our purpose to make Cuyp a faultless painter. As even Rembrandt had limitations, so had Aelbert Cuyp. His horses, though remarkable for the time, are often faulty in drawing and in action; in his equestrian portraits his men are strangely self conscious, as if they were thinking only of how to pose for their portraits; his children are sometimes curiously small and a bit ungainly; and the heads of his cattle are narrow. Moreover, the sunlight which he loved to paint seems often too yellow. As to this last, it may be questioned whether his pictures were originally so yellow, since the amber varnishes that he used may have caused some changes in color. Finally, the art of both Cuyp and Potter when compared to that of modern masters seems lacking in movement. Few Dutchmen were highly successful in rendering movement, and the quiet, motionless cattle of Potter and of Cuyp form a strong contrast to the swiftly

moving creatures in the paintings of the present-day German master Heinrich Zügel.* They might be compared also to the nineteenth century Frenchman, Troyon. While Potter and Cuyp painted landscapes with cattle, Troyon painted beautiful poetic landscapes across which cattle happen to pass. Again, both Cuyp and Potter are occasionally spotty in color and confused in mass, whereas the modern Dutch artist Mauve, a master-painter of sheep, executes pictures in which color, light and shade are all brought together into a rich tone, and in which the surface of the picture is beautiful in itself, as the surface of a piece of porcelain or of old metal. Potter and Cuyp were leaders in their own day, but they left opportunities for further evolution in the nineteenth century.

Any account of the animal painters of Holland would be incomplete without mention of Philips Wouverman. Born in Haarlem in 1619, he died there in 1668. He is in a way the culmination of Dutch painting as regards the combination of figures and landscape, but he was, above all else, the painter of the horse, which he portrays in all occupations and in innumerable positions, yet always small in size. Every visitor to European galleries remembers his battle scenes, with the inevitable white horse. His activity must have been prodigious, since he left more than six hundred pictures, of which over fifty are in St. Petersburg, and more than sixty in Dresden. But mere numbers are not everything, and although Wouverman's pictures at Dresden raise one's opinion of his art, he usually works below the level of his best. Occasionally he is admirable in composition, and in aerial perspective, but usually his work is spotty and frequently confused. In color, in poetic effect, and in largeness of conception he is certainly inferior to Cuyp as an animal painter, and to Ruisdael and a score of others as a landscape painter. He was a man of talent and of great industry, but certainly not of genius.

Adriaen van de Velde (1635-1672) was mentioned in last month's article as important for his painting of figures into

*The International Studio, December, 1908, pp. 155-157.

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the landscapes of his great contemporaries and for his charming pictures of the beach at Scheveningen, but he is usually classified among the animal painters, and, in fact, he studied under Paul Potter. The two have, indeed, much in common in their prodigious success, their productivity and their early deaths as well as in the character of their art. Van de Velde carried on the traditions of his predecessor; but while his drawing was not so accurate as Potter's, his art shows an advance on that of his rival in depth and warmth of coloring, in brilliancy of atmospheric effect and in poetic conception. At its best, his work is more artistic and refined if not more clever than that of Potter.

Entirely unconnected with Potter was Jan Asselyn (1610-1660), the painter of "The Enraged Swan." For broad and effective treatment of the white feathers, the transparent shadows, the vigorous movement of the outspread wings, the long, forward thrust of the neck, and the focussing of the light on the excited bird this is a magnificent example of animal painting. It seems that the picture was originally painted as a work of art interpretative of a swan defending his brood against a dog swimming towards the nest (the profile of the dog's head can be seen in the lower left hand corner), but somewhat later it was desired to give the painting an allegorical significance in connection with the defence of the country, and to this end the words "Grand Pensionary" (referring to Jan de Witt) were painted in underneath the swan, to the right of the bird's left foot; while "Holland" was inscribed upon the egg, and over the dog "The Enemy of the State." The picture has therefore sometimes been called "The Watchfulness of Jan de Witt."

This painting is as unique among the works of Jan Asselyn as it is in the Dutch school. Its triumphant expression of animal emotion is sufficient reason for including it among our reproductions but Jan Asselyn really belongs to a group of Dutch painters, the importance of which has not yet been brought out, to the group of men who visited Italy and sought inspiration in the scenery, the ruins, and in the

peasantry of that country, that is to say he belongs to the so-called Italianizers. Not all of the seventeenth century painters of Holland were devoted to the sincere and faithful rendering of things Dutch. Asselyn was only one of many distinguished artists who were not content with the beauty of their native land, but sought the romantic element in the classic ruins, the gay colors, and the brilliant atmosphere of Italy. Not only Asselyn, but also Jan Both (1610-1662), Nicolaas Berchem (1620-1683), and the latter's pupil, Karel Dujardin (1625-1678), to name only the greatest of their class, visited Italy and remained there for years. Their art has very much in common; everything about it is Italian. They painted Neapolitan peasants; Italian shepherds and shepherdesses in their native costumes, with the Roman Campagna in the background. They loved to represent the aqueducts and the ruined castles by way of a picturesque note. Many of their pictures emulated the so-called "ideal" landscapes of the Frenchman, Claude Lorraine (1610-1684), who lived in Rome and whose works were acclaimed by the whole world. These Dutch Italianizers were important artists in a way; they were masters of aërial perspective, and their glowing skies, their warm coloring, and their Italian landscapes enriched with architecture and decorated with charming groups of peasants with their sheep and cattle possessed a romantic glamor. These men could handle a brush as well as their brothers in the North, and their pencil was firm and neat. Their art was, perhaps, too neat, too precise, and too polished. They did for landscape what the followers of Dou and Mieris did for figure painting. In treating the gay costumes of the peasantry they were spotty in color, and the animals they introduced were smooth and porcelain-like in appearance. In fact, with all their skill, their semi-classic landscape, their pretty peasantry and picturesque ruins seem artificial and and unreal when compared with the sincere and honest work of the stay-at-home Dutchmen. Unlike the work of these latter, the art of the Italianizers did not develop spontaneously, did not take root in its own soil, nor find the conditions favorable to its growth. As they

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were, therefore, a sign of a decadence, it has seemed best in this article, as in all of the series, to dwell only on the supreme masters of the school.

For this reason it seems best to pass lightly over the painters of still life. In Holland of the seventeenth century there were many artists of skill and taste who gave their lives to the painting of flowers, of pots and pans, of vegetables and dead game. Many of these pictures are masterpieces of color, and of brush work; but what artistic pleasure they gave may be appreciated only in the presence of the original paintings. Since in small process illustrations all suggestion of mellow tones and fine workmanship is lost, it seems best here to omit reproductions of this class of paintings. Moreover, for a picture to be a work of art rather than a mere transcript of nature, it should suggest something of personality and of passion, and the painting of still-life affords little opportunity in this direction. In somewhat the same way the absence of individuality and of emotional qualities causes the numerous skilful architectural paintings of this school to seem cold and uninspiring. Yet some of the Dutchmen who painted the insides and outsides of churches were artists of high rank. Our reproductions of a painting by Berck-Heijde (1838-1698) and of another by Houckgeest (flourished about 1639-1651) represent at its best this architectural painting in which much artistic skill is shown in the choice of the point of view and in contrasts of light and shadow to bring out the effect of sun-light. In fact these painters together with Emanuel de Witte (1607-1692), the greatest of the interpreters of church interiors, started a school which "persisted down almost to our own day, without, however, producing any considerable artist until the days of Basboom and Mathew Maris." These latter artists are among the first of the nineteenth century Dutchmen who will be discussed in our article of next month; and afford a good illustration of the fact that modern artists may often be most intelligently appreciated after the student has first learned something of the character of the Old Masters who were their artistic ancestors.

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Regarding together all the men of this and the preced-

ing article they are seen to occupy as a group an interesting position in the history of art. As in point of time they come midway between the early Italians and the moderns, so in the character of their art they occupy an intermediate position between the art of the Renaissance and that of the present day. Their work is broader, more generalized, more synthetic than that of the early Italians; it is not so hasty and uncertain as that of many moderns. Though even Ruisdael is sometimes confused in composition, since he sometimes introduces too many details, he and his contemporaries are usually simpler than the fifteenth century Florentines, and yet not so simplified as the best painters of today. These Dutchmen as a school are masters of composition, shunning alike the excessive precision of the Italians and the unstudied, almost careless arrangements by which modern artists seek a naturalistic effect. Ruisdael and Hobbema and their contemporaries avoid the slavish imitation of nature in rendering every leaf of a tree and every petal of a flower which we see in Fra Angelico, and the Van Eycks, while at the same time they are more precise than those modern Frenchmen who try to paint a thousand leaves by one stroke of the brush; whose method of painting everything in dots and dashes make all objects seem vague, even though it does suggest atmospheric effect by that very vagueness. In a word, the Dutchmen hold an intermediate position in their rendering of atmosphere as in all else.

Looking broadly at the painters of the seventeenth century in Holland we see that they are supreme in three particulars: in their sincere interpretation of their native land; in their mastery of composition; and in their rendering of form. Whereas the Florentine painters studied the anatomy of the human figure for generations, and became such delineators of mankind that they are the greatest school of figure artists since the Greeks, these Dutchmen made an equally careful study of trees and animals, of earth and sea and sky. They learned to represent the anatomy of trees, their trunks and branches and to suggest the volume, bulk, and texture of animals; the weight and massiveness of

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rocks. By careful gradations of color and of light and shade the Dutchmen were able to suggest better than any group of artists before them the shape and movement of the clouds, the arch of the sky; the anatomy of trees and rocks and earth, the way in which the earth spreads away to the horizon. They thus come to form not the only or the best group of landscape painters, but, chronologically, the first of the great national schools of pure landscape in the whole history of art.

For Search and Review Questions on Required Readings See the Round Table Section of this Magazine.

(*End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading, pages 17-76.*)

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# Development and Condition of the Woman Question in Germany

By Emilie M. Kettler

THE United States is justly considered the birthplace of the movement for women's rights. During the years of struggle and privation of the Revolution, the women, by proving themselves the equals of men, as far as capacity for intelligent action and endurance under suffering were concerned, won for themselves a position of which they have been able to reap full advantage, for the history of the woman question in America has been since then one of steady progress.

In Germany, as we shall see, the path was not so smooth. Not until the turbulent year of 1848, when the whole country was roused in the general struggle for national liberty, did the German woman, awaking to a sense of the inferiority of her position and her lack of opportunity for higher culture, feel impelled to fight for a larger sphere of action. Let us try to understand why this impulse came so late to German women.

In the first place, the conditions of the country had been most unfavorable in every way. Past centuries of warfare had produced their brutalizing effect and fixed still firmer, both in the rulers and in the ruled, belief that "might makes right." The men did not seem to desire or appreciate individual liberty, as much as did for instance their English brothers, but submitted patiently to the often despotic rule of small princes; and their women remained contentedly in the limited sphere allotted to them. The German law was founded on the Corpus Juris of the Romans, whose women were treated scarcely better than slaves, and was ill-suited to a nation which, even in Tacitus' time, showed the greatest respect towards women. In spite of this, however, happy family lives prevailed, for although the laws were all in favor of man, and granted him nearly every right over the weaker sex, this power was rarely

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abused, owing to the innate kindness and good nature of the German; a good example of the truth of J. S. Mills' remark: "Laws would never be improved if there were not numerous persons whose moral sentiments are better than the existing laws."

And in the end the time for improving the laws *did* come. When during the French Revolution the "*Déclaration des Droits de l'Homme*" was drawn up, the French women also made their "*déclaration des droits de la femme,*" and the American women set up their "Declaration of Sentiments" in 1848 in the form of a proposed amendment to the Constitution.

What root did these ideas take in Germany? There the period in which classic literature came to its fullest blossom had been followed by the romantic movement. The cultured world turned away from the unhappy condition of political affairs, to become absorbed in the world of thought. Political freedom counted for nothing; intellectual freedom was everything. This was the period which won for the Germans the title "The people of poets and thinkers."

The fermenting long years of 1830-48 had to come before the nation could be roused to an interest in political and social affairs. During that time the restricted helpless position of women became more and more evident. The invention of machinery tended to make the labor of women almost superfluous in their own households, and the question grew more and more pressing as to what was to become of those daughters who were unmarried and unprovided for.

The women of the working classes naturally found a field of labor more easily, and so the movement for women's rights originated first of all n the middle class, just as it did in all other countries. It was a real blessing for the cause that its first leader, Frau Luise Otto, in Leipzig, was a large-minded wise woman who had shared in all the intellectual privileges of her time. She thoroughly understood the needs of her generation, and employed a temperate and

wise method of bringing the question of women's rights closer to public interest. With other friends who shared her opinions, Auguste Schmidt, Lina Morgenstern, and Henriette Goldschmidt, she founded in 1865 the "Allgemeinen Deutschen Frauenbund," or General Association of Women. They claimed the following rights:

1. An education equal in worth to that of men.
2. The right to work.
3. Free choice of professions.

The larger half of the female world hailed these demands with the greatest enthusiasm, but the ridicule and enmity not only of the men, but of many of their own sex, was a constant hindrance to progress. With untiring energy the Leipziger Association of Women first of all opened the battle for higher education. Throughout the country the boys' schools, in which they were prepared for the university, were institutions of the highest order and very rightly earned for Germany the reputation of being one of the leading countries as far as schools were concerned, but those for girls fell far below them. A misdirected idealism led the Germans to devote their entire attention to developing in their girls the more emotional qualities of mind and sentimentality and a general want of thoroughness were the inevitable results.

Before opening up any new professions to women, it was therefore of first importance to give them the solid groundwork of a higher and more thorough education.

As early as 1867, Frau Henriette Goldschmidt handed the first petition in to the government asking that women be allowed to enter the universities of Germany, but year after year the request was refused. Even the founding of preparatory schools met everywhere with the most violent opposition. All this remained for a younger generation to accomplish.

After the unification of Germany in 1870 the central position of the Women's Rights Movement naturally became transferred from Leipzig to the capital of the nation,

Berlin, and the sphere of action grew more and more extensive.

The Leipziger Club of Women had not demanded the right to vote in the Reichstag nor any other strictly political rights, but a demand of that nature was the next step forward, and in 1887 a younger group of women under the leadership of Frau Minna Cauer founded in Berlin the Club of Women Suffragists. Frau Cauer believed that the only solid foundation for the whole woman question was for both sexes to be recognized by the State as absolute equals, not only socially, but politically. Her friend, Dr. Anita Augspurg, by lecturing and distributing leaflets on the subject, proved most forcibly to women that they would always remain at a disadvantage as long as they had no directing and deciding power in making the laws. Through the efforts of both these women, a strong agitation in favor of women's suffrage was organized in Germany. At present the entire Federation of Women are unanimous in demanding the suffrage.

Germany is conspicuous for the excellent way in which this great movement has been organized. There is scarcely a small town which has not been sought out by women speakers, and in this way small local groups have been formed, all of which become branches of the larger federation.

It is perfectly natural that in such a province as this whole question covers, different factions should be formed and separate groups join according to their several aims, but these divisions are by no means a sign of strife or discord. Four such divisions can be sharply defined:

1. The social-democrats.
2. The radicals.
3. The moderates.
4. Those associations founded on religious beliefs.

The only group standing quite isolated is the first one. There the interests of women are not separated from those of men; the battle is a mutual one of a whole class against

capitalism, and both sexes fight together shoulder to shoulder.

The other three divisions are all members of the "International Council of Women" and though the methods they use may be different, they all work for practically the same goal, viz., that of the industrial, legal, and moral liberation of women.

The work of the radical party lies principally in the forming of propaganda and in systematic agitation for the cause; they also demand complete women's suffrage and the full recognition of rights of women in the State. The moderate party, on the other hand, limit their field of labor mostly to the reform of education and to social questions, and hope by gradually educating women to political efficiency, to reach the same goal eventually. Next to these two independent branches of the Women's Rights Movement, other associations have been formed during the last ten years, with the various religious faiths as a foundation: first, in Hanover, 1903, the widely ramified "Evangelische Frauenbund" (Protestant), next a Catholic, and lastly a Jewish Club of Women.

One naturally expects the leaders of these divisions to hold very different opinions, and this is the case, as we shall see, but their strongly marked and interesting personalities demand from us equal respect and appreciation.

A large number of noted women act as leaders of the radicals or left wing, but we can sketch here the lives of the principal leaders only.

Frau Minna Cauer took up the cause very late, after a life rich in experience. She is the daughter of a clergyman who fostered in her from her youth up a strong interest in history and politics. Her dearest wish was to become a scholar, but circumstances kept her at home with her parents until her marriage with a doctor at the age of twenty. However, on losing him and her little son after a short married life, she turned to earnest study as a palliative for her sorrow. After taking her teacher's examinations she passed several interesting years in France. The war of 1870 forced

her to return and she took a position as teacher in a girls' school at Hamm in Westfalen. Here she found in the director of the school her second husband, and fifteen years of happy married life followed. She proved a faithful mother of five stepchildren and a valuable assistant to her husband, particularly when after his removal to Berlin he was drawn into a spirited fight against the anti-Semitic movement and its principal leader, the court preacher Stöcker.

Cauer and his wife found faithful protectors in the Emperor and Empress Friedrich, and the latter stood by Frau Cauer with advice and consolation when on the death of her second husband she was again left alone in the world. Her stepchildren had outgrown her care, and so she resolved to devote herself entirely to her favorite historical studies and literary work. But life had duties of a more strenuous nature in store for her. Happening one day to attend a political meeting in which the women's cause was most unjustly attacked, she rose on the impulse of the moment to defend them, and spoke so efficiently and tellingly that her joining the movement and her rise to the position of a leader was the inevitable result. She is now the editor of *Die Frauenbewegung* (The Woman's Movement).

Anita Augspurg, Dr. Juris, who works side by side with Frau Cauer, devotes herself particularly to women's suffrage and the improvement of laws relating to women. When the first sketches of the new civil code of law were being discussed in the Reichstag, it was due to her untiring efforts that many essential changes in favor of women were attained. Dr. Augspurg edits a monthly magazine called the *Frauenstimmrecht* (Woman's Right of Suffrage) in connection with Frau Cauer's magazine.

On the other hand, Dr. Helene Stoecker has chosen a more social field and devotes herself principally to the protection of motherhood, whether in of out of marriage bonds, in which cause she speaks and writes with glowing eloquence. Like Ellen Key (the famous Norwegian), she is a firm adherent and representative of the "New Ethics," and demands the same morals for both sexes.

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Frau Minna Cauer.

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Helen Lange.

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Helene Stoecker, Ph. D.

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Dr. Anita Augspurg.

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Frau Lily Braun.

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Alice Salomon, Ph. D.

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Dr. Helene Stoecker, also a clergyman's daughter, was born in a parsonage on the Rhine, which she left early in life in order to study at the Berlin University. After taking courses in literature and economics, she became instructor in the Lessing High School, and is now the leading spirit of the associations for the protection of mothers.

Another noted leader in this more social field is Dr. Alice Salomon. She not only makes it her life's work to attract women from all spheres of society to help in the cause, but founded courses for the systematic training of the young in such work. She is now the director of the Women's School of Social Economics in Berlin, which makes a specialty of pedagogy, hygiene, domestic and political economy, and practical introduction to social work in all its different branches. As commander of the right wing, the more moderate party, none has a more just claim than Helene Lange, who is indisputably the foremost leader in all educational matters. She was born in Oldenburg in the year 1848, made teaching her profession, and in 1872 came to Berlin, where for fifteen years she supervised and directed a teachers' seminary. This position gave her the most thorough opportunity for studying the system of girls' education and observing its many defects, and in 1887 she wrote a paper in which she pointed these out and suggested desirable reforms. This paper, together with a petition signed by a large number of women, was presented to the Kultus Minister (Minister of Education), but it met only with the greatest opposition. Helene Lange with Auguste Schmidt, in order to win the whole class of teachers to the cause, now founded in 1890 the German Teachers' Club, of which she became chairman. In this same year she succeeded in getting permission from the government to open the universities to teachers for a two or three year course of study. The latter, after having passed the necessary higher examinations, were to be employed in teaching the older classes in the girls' schools. At the same time she arranged so-called "Gymnasial Kurse" (similar to the courses in the regular schools for boys) in order to prepare the girls for the uni-

versity entrance examinations. She had great success in this, and many cities followed her example and made similar arrangements. All these institutions, however, could only serve as a makeshift, until such time as the government itself saw fit to make a general substantial reform in the education of girls. This final step was attained last year. On the 15th of August, 1908, the wished-for reform was secured, and all the universities of Germany are now open to those women who have passed the regular entrance examinations.

We must not close the list of important leaders without mentioning the gifted Frau Lily Braun, who works in the ranks of the social-democrats. The history of her origin is full of interesting contrasts. She is the daughter of the Prussian general von Kretschmann and the great-granddaughter of Jerome Bonaparte, that adventurous and pleasure-loving brother of Napoleon. Lily Braun herself lifted the veil in regard to the descent of her grandmother, Frau Jenny von Gustedt, by publishing the latter's most interesting memoirs. Jenny was the illegitimate daughter of Jerome by Diana, Countess of Pappenheim, and proved most devoted to her father through all his varied career. The granddaughter has inherited much of the charm and strong individuality of her grandmother, and has modelled her own life in accordance with her independent spirit. Of her own free will she deserted the ranks of the aristocracy in order to marry Braun, a leader of the social-democrats, and threw her entire energy and capabilities into the service of the women's movement in this party.

Looking back at all that has been accomplished by the Federation of Women in the years since 1865, and realizing how talented and capable are their present leaders, of whom we have here learned to know a few, we have every reason to look forward to their future work with hopeful anticipation. Every strong popular movement which has for its aim the attainment of ideal conditions in freedom and equality needs all our encouragement, and so we most heartily endorse the work of the Women's Federation and wish them—

*Vivat, floreat, crescat!*

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# Die Waffen Nieder—Lay Down Your Arms

By Baroness Bertha von Suttner

LESS than ten years ago a remarkable book appeared in Europe. Its author, Baroness von Suttner, was an Austrian woman, well known in the court of Vienna. Austria, the country of Metternich, has seemed to many the embodiment of the reactionary spirit of Europe, yet out of this unpromising atmosphere has come a liberalizing influence which has been felt all over the civilized world. "Die Waffen Nieder," the title of the book of which Baroness von Suttner is the author, has been translated into all the principal European languages and an English version, "Lay Down Your Arms," was published in this country a few years ago. The author, a woman deeply interested in the problems of the world about her, and by nature studious, became convinced, to use her own phraseology, "That war was an institution handed down to us by barbarians and to be removed by civilization." Having some experience as a writer of stories, her determination to help the cause of peace as best she could naturally resulted in a plan for a peace novel, and with deep earnestness she set about her undertaking. She consulted authorities, studied the campaigns of 1859, 1864, 1866, and 1870-1, read the memoirs of the different generals, examined reports of army surgeons and the Red Cross Society, investigated diplomatic dispatches and the orders given to the various armies. The book proved to be so searching in its character that it was difficult to find a publisher for it. "It is impossible to print this in the present

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military state of affairs," was the usual comment, but she finally prevailed upon a Dresden publisher to undertake it, despite her refusal to allow him to cut certain parts which he feared might give offense in military circles. The story is in the form of an autobiography. The reader lives through the experiences of an Austrian woman, the wife of an officer in the struggle between Austria and Prussia in '66. Very skilfully has the author woven into the tale a clear presentation of the paralyzing influences of war. Its educational effect, its blinding of moral perceptions, its stupidity and savagery and wretchedness, and its widespread development of the spirit of hatred and distrust among men masked by false ideas of patriotism are set forth in their true light. Then with fine irony she shows the childishness and vanity at the back of much of the diplomacy which is directly responsible for it. The siege of Paris contrasting with the pictures of war as it affected provincial life in Austria brings the culmination of the tragic story which presents almost every phase of the life of the times. The following passages refer to the experiences of the heroine who is searching for her husband just after the battle of Königgratz. A young regimental surgeon is describing at her request what a battle really means, for "there is something more hideous than a battlefield during the fight, namely one afterwards:"

No more thunder of artillery, no more blare of trumpets, no more beat of drum; only the low moans of pain and the rattle of death. In the trampled ground some redly-glimmering pools, lakes of blood; all the crops destroyed, only here and there a piece of land left untouched, and still covered with stubble; the smiling villages of yesterday turned into ruins and rubbish. The trees burned and hacked in the forests, the hedges torn with grape-shot. And on the battle-ground thousands and thousands of men dead and dying—dying without aid. No blossoms of flowers are to be seen on wayside or meadow; but sabres, bayonets, knapsacks, cloaks, overturned ammunition wagons, powder wagons blown into the air, cannon with broken carriages. Near the cannon, whose muzzles are black with smoke, the ground is bloodiest. There the greatest number and the most mangled of dead and half-dead are lying, literally torn to pieces with shot; and the dead horses, and the half-dead which raise themselves on their feet—such as they have left

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Baroness von Suttner, Author of "Lay Down Your Arms," and one-time Winner of the Nobel Peace Prize.

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them—to sink again; then raise themselves up once more and fall down again, till they only raise their heads to shriek out their pain-laden death-cry. There is a hollow way quite filled with corpses trodden into the mire. The poor creatures had taken refuge there no doubt to get cover, but a battery has driven over them, and they have been crushed by the horses' hoofs and the wheels. Many of them are still alive—a pulpy, bleeding mass, but "still alive."

And yet there is still something more hellish even than all this, and that is the appearance of the most vile scum of humanity, as it shows itself in war—*i. e.*, the appearance and the activity of "the hyena of the battlefield." "Then slink on the monsters who grope after the spoils of the dead, and bend over the corpses and over the living, mercilessly tearing off their clothes from their bodies. The boots are dragged off the bleeding limbs, the rings off the wounded hands, and to get the ring the finger is simply chopped off, and if a man tries to defend himself from such a sacrifice, he is murdered by these hyenas."

"That is the picture of the next morning," said the surgeon, in conclusion. "Shall I go on further and tell you what happens next evening?"

"I will tell you that, doctor," I broke in. "One of the two capitals of the powers engaged has received the telegraphic news of the glorious victory. And there in the morning, while the hyena is going on round the trench, they are singing in the churches: 'Now thank we the Lord,' and in the evening there the mother or the wife of one of the men buried alive is putting a lighted candle or two in the window-sill because the city is illuminated."

"What a journey that was! The regimental surgeon had long ceased to speak, but the scenes he had described went on continually presenting themselves before my mind's eye. To escape from this train of thoughts which persecuted me, I began to look out of the carriage window and try to find distraction in the prospect of the country. But here also pictures of the horrors of war, presented themselves to my vision. It is true no violent devastation had taken place in this neighborhood, there were no ruined villages smoking there, "the enemy" has effected no lodgment there, but what was raging there was perhaps still worse, *viz.*, the *fear* of the enemy. "The Prussians are coming! the Prussians are coming!" was the signal of alarm through the whole region, and though in traveling past one did not hear the words, yet even from the carriage window their effect was plainly to be seen. Everywhere on all the roads and lanes were people flying, leaving their homes with bag and baggage. Whole trains of wagons were moving inland, filled with household furniture, and provisions, all evidently packed up in the greatest haste. On the same car would be some little pigs, the

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youngest child, and one or two sacks of potatoes, beside it on foot man and wife and the elder children; that is how I saw a family making their escape as they moved down a road near me. Where were the poor creatures going? They themselves very likely did not know, it was only away, away from "the Prussians." So men flee from the roaring fire, or the rising flood.

Frequently a train passed us on the other line—wounded, always and again wounded—always once more the ashy faces, the bandaged hands, the arms in slings. At the stations especially one might feed on this sight in all its variations to satiety. All the large or small platforms, on which one usually sees the traveling population waiting or cheerfully standing or walking about, were now filled with prostrate or cowering figures. They were the invalid soldiers who had been brought from the field—or private hospitals in the neighborhood, and were waiting for the next train which might serve for the transport of the wounded. There they might have to lie for hours; and who knows how many removals they have already passed through! From the battlefield to the first-aid station, from thence to the ambulance, from thence to a movable hospital, then to the village, and now to the railway, whence they have still the journey to Vienna before them; then from the station to the hospital, and from thence after all these long tortures perhaps back to their regiment—perhaps to the churchyard. I was so sorry—so sorry—so terribly sorry for these poor fellows! I should have liked to kneel down before each of them and whisper a few words of compassion to him. But the doctor would not allow me. When we got out at a station he gave me his arm and took me into the station-master's office. There he brought me some wine, or some other refreshment.

The nurses carried on their own work of mercy here also. They gave the wounded men drink and food, such as they could hunt up, but often there was nothing to be had. The provisions in the refreshment rooms were generally exhausted. The movement at the stations, especially at the large ones, had a bewildering effect on me. It seemed to me like an evil dream. All this running hither and thither, this confused pell-mell—troops marching out, people flying away, sick-bearers, heaps of bleeding and complaining soldiers, sobbing women wringing their hands, shouts, harsh words of command—crowds on all hands, no free passage anywhere—baggage being sent in, war material, cannons—on another side horses and bellowing cattle, and amongst them the continuous sound of the telegraph—trains rushing through filled, or crowded rather, with the reserves coming up from Vienna. These soldiers were brought along in third and fourth class carriages—nay, also in baggage and cattle trucks—just in the same way as cattle to be slaughtered, and regarding it as a matter of fact, I could not repress the thought:

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"What else were they in reality? Were they not like the cattle marked out for slaughter—were they not, like them, sent to the great political market, where business is done in food for powder—what the French call *chair-a-canncn?*" A mad roar—was it a war song?—pealed out and drowned the rattling sound of wheels—one minute, and the train was gone. With the speed of the wind it bore a portion of its freight to certain death. Yes, certain death. Even if no individual can say of himself that he is sure to fall, yet a certain percentage of the whole must and will fall. An army marching to the field, as they sweep along the high road on foot or on horseback, may have a touch of antique poetry about it; but for the railroad of our modern day, the symbol of culture binding nations together, to serve as a means for promoting barbarism let loose—that is a thing altogether too inconsistent and horrible. And what a false ring also has the telegraph signal used in this service—that splendid sign of triumph of the human intellect, which has enabled us to propagate thought with lightning speed from one land to another. All these inventions of the new era which are designed to promote the intercourse of nations, to lighten, beautify, and enrich life, are now misapplied by that old-world principle which aims at dividing the people and annihilating life. Our boast before savages is: "Look at our railroads, look at our telegraphs; we are civilized nations:" and then we use these things to increase a hundredfold our own savagery.

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# Auguste Rodin and His Statue of Balzac

By Edwina Spencer

THE work of the French sculptor, Auguste Rodin, first became known in this country during the decade between 1880 and '90, chiefly through the enthusiasm of two Americans, Mr. T. H. Bartlett, the sculptor, and Mr. W. C. Brownell, the critic, who sought him out in Paris early in his career and upon their return joyfully spread his fame here. Later those who visited the Columbian Exposition saw his two fine groups, "Paolo and Francesca" and "The Kiss;" as well as one of the figures from his famous "Burghers of Calais," a marvelous monument to those devoted citizens of medieval days who went out, with halters about their necks to give up their lives for the commonwealth. Since that time, M. Rodin has made a long series of portrait-busts of Americans, notably that of Mrs. Potter-Palmer; while many of our students in Paris have profited by his advice and instruction. It was much regretted that he was able to send to the St. Louis Fair only one example of his genius, though that was "The Thinker," the original of which stands in front of the Pantheon in Paris, bought and placed there by public subscription.*

Born in Paris in 1840, M. Rodin faced, from boyhood, an ever-increasing load of hampering difficulties, and, later, of professional slights and jealousies. Up to recent years his biography is expressed by his own words, "I have no history. My life is simply the story of constant struggle and unchanging poverty." Now, however, after being "hated for forty years," he has attained both artistic and worldly success; his villa outside Paris has two museums attached for his fine collections, and he lives happily absorbed in his work. Upon the death of Mr. Whistler he succeeded him as President of the International Society of Sculptors, Painters and Gravers, and honors pour upon him from every

*Mr. Yerkes of New York was an early purchaser of two exquisite works which never have been reproduced, "Cupid and Psyche" and "Orpheus and Eurydice."

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quarter, for he is conceded to be the greatest sculptor France ever has produced.

Ten years ago, however, only a discerning minority realized the depth and force of the man's genius. He had created the "Burghers of Calais," amazing in its penetrating truthfulness, and was struggling toward fuller, more radical expression of his artistic ideals. To the emptiness and formalism of the French Academy, to mere imitation of the exterior, without the soul beneath, to the weak, the artificial, the theatrical in art, he opposed strength, sincerity, and fire,—the fire of a great soul and a great intellect working together. He labored to free himself from sculptural conventions, to abandon everything in the way of tradition that would hamper him in revealing the spiritual man; and his whole interest centered in portraying the hidden passions, despairs, longings, and aspirations of humanity.

During these years of striving, a statue of Balzac, commissioned for a public monument to the celebrated novelist, had been in process of evolution. At last, in the Paris Salon of 1898, it appeared,—a work so unconventional, so powerful, so startling in its originality that it shook the art world of Paris to its foundations. As was written at the time, "rarely has a work of art given rise to such ravings, such exasperation, such blind abuse, and such extraordinary praise." The question of its merit divided the whole city into rival factions. For a week the Dreyfus case, then dragging out its slow length, was forgotten by the public; and from morning till night throughout the exhibition a dense crowd surrounded the statue.

The "Balzac" is a standing figure, showing us a short man with broad shoulders and a bulky frame, clothed in a loose dressing-gown, the sleeves of which hang empty as the arms are folded beneath it. The body has been so subordinated to the face that the long straight robe gives almost the effect of an oblong block, above which rises the novelist's powerful head, savage, proud, with the mane of a lion and the gaze of an eagle.

M. Rodin had studied every scrap of evidence in re-

Statue of Balzac. By Rodin.

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gard to Balzac's physical make-up, especially Lamartine's faithful description. He had been long familiar with all his writings, but not content with this he visited the writer's haunts and tried to absorb more of his spirit. Thus equipped, he confronted a task of tremendous difficulty,—the revelation of the spiritual and intellectual Balzac through the medium of an awkward and inharmonious physique, which in no way lent itself to sculptural portrayal. This he achieved by representing Balzac rising in the night, as he so frequently did, to pace up and down, disturbed and sleepless, pursuing an idea; having caught around him the famous "monk's robe," which was his favorite garb. This robe, inveighed against by the thoughtless, was the stroke of inspiration that enabled the sculptor to conceal the ugly body and short arms, and to concentrate the spectator's attention upon the face—that astonishing physiognomy which Lamartine has described as "the face of an element." One has only to read the rest of Lamartine's words to recognize the perfect accuracy of this "big head, hair disheveled over collar and cheeks like a mane which the scissors never clipped, eyes of flame, colossal torso." Balzac was an indomitable fighter, and we see here, in attitude and expression, his long hard struggle for public recognition. "The face is admirable in its pride, strength of will, haughty irony, and penetrating power of thought."

The statue has nothing in common with the approved style of sculpture for public parks and squares. We do not find this great Frenchman in a "Prince Albert" or a silk hat, nor does he strike an attitude, surrounded by allegorical figures. The only approach to symbolism is in the flowing garment, which we may take as typifying the art of the romancer, the robe of imagination in which Balzac clothed his keen analyses of human character. This titan of literature, modeled on the simplest and mightiest lines, lifts his eyes to the comedy of life and watches humanity defile before him. This is truly the man of whom it has been said "he was not merely a novelist, he was an epoch, the history of a generation."

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The most noticeable characteristic of the statue is its intense vigor, the sense of spontaneous life which gives it a haunting power, and which when it was first exhibited dwarfed everything around it. This intense mental and spiritual virility is the keynote of all M. Rodin's sculpture. He is so absolutely master of his material that by means of it he is able to reveal the spirit of men, while his technique is so perfect that it never obtrudes itself. In his marble portraits the garment is of as little importance as in the painted portraits of Frans Hals or Rembrandt; it is as broadly indicated as in painting, never being allowed to interfere with the significance of or to distract attention from the face. His art is based on the conception that *form* should be *subordinate to the main idea,* to the *spiritual meaning* for he believes with Ovid that "it is the mind that makes the man, and our vigor is in our immortal soul."

The Balzac is important as being M. Rodin's first public expression of these principles. But aside from its radicalism, there were several causes which prevented its being received open-mindedly and judged impartially by the public. Years before, when the Society of Men of Letters agitated raising a monument to Balzac, several of Rodin's friends, especially Zola, urged him to ask for the commission, which he finally did, and the offer was accepted. He made, however, the unfortunate mistake of promising to finish it within eighteen months, a promise which the press of other important work, and the conscientiously detailed study he gave the subject, made it impossible for him to keep. As several years passed, and it became the fashion to joke about the non-appearance of the Balzac, the impatience of the committee resulted in strained relations between them and the sculptor, and a fine crop of petty jealousies, grievances, and animosities was thus ready to spring up when the statue did at last appear.

Intended to be set up in bronze, the whiteness of the plaster cast exhibited failed in various ways to give the proper effect; owing to former misunderstandings it was estimated by many according to a preconceived dislike, and

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an outcry made against it in some quarters, which was ill deserved by the dignity of Rodin's life, and the conscientiousness of his art. The Society of Men of Letters which had commissioned it refused to accept the model; and though by bringing legal action the sculptor might have compelled them to keep it, he took back the work. Meantime he had received many offers of purchase from public and private sources, but he refused them, and continues to refuse all such offers, retaining the Balzac in his studio.

The controversy, however, had called universal attention to Rodin's achievements, and during the decade since its first exhibition, the sculptor of the Balzac has come into his own. The world has learned to appreciate this man, whose genius is preoccupied with humanity, and who has recorded, in bronze and marble the whole psychology of his epoch. He has been called the Wagner of sculpture, because as Wagner endowed music, so he has endowed modern sculpture with new capabilities and larger powers. The attention it attracted to these problems, and the impetus it gave to the appreciation of Rodin's true aims, has made the Balzac incident one of the most interesting and enlightening in the history of contemporary art.

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# Famous European Short Stories

## A Designing Aristocrat

By John Ruffini

HAVE you ever considered what a grand, what a beautiful thing a tree is? I suspect that trees have not had all the justice done them which they deserve. You often meet people with a hobby for flowers, or for a particular flower, or for mosses or ferns, or what not, but very seldom for trees. And yet what more worthy of admiration than a tree! Take it as a whole, can you conceive a happier combination of majesty and of grace—firm as a rock, yet light as a feather fan? Or take it in its several parts—from the trunk, a masterpiece in itself, if you examine it closely, of texture and color—from the powerful trunk, I say, able to stand its own against a hurricane, up to the slenderest filigree twig waving in the air, and see without wonder, if you can, the never-ending development, tier upon tier, of gradually dwindling curves, which go to form the glorious arch of its far-spreading canopy. Or look at trees in their relation to the landscape around; why, it derives most of its comeliness, variety, and character from them. Trees are to the face of the earth what those golden or jet black tresses are to yours, fair reader—not all its beauty, certainly, but the indispensable complement to it.

Let us leave this, however, an open question; the fact I have to state is, that Herr von Linden had a passion for trees—by no means an exclusive one, as abundantly shown by the great care he had taken to surround himself with everything that is lively in nature, as well as trees. Herr von Linden was the master of the Grün (the Green), that model country seat, mentioned with just praise in all the books of travel on Switzerland and which few tourists worthy the name, who pass in its vicinity, fail to visit. The Grün, for generations in the von Linden family, was, when inherited by its present owner in a sad condition of neglect and decay; indeed with little to recommend it but its unparalleled prospect and fine trees. Herr von Linden had devoted ten years of his life, and a corresponding amount of

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taste and money (of both which articles he had a large share) to restore, improve, enlarge, and embellish the Grün, in short, to make it what it is now-a-days, one of the attractions and boasts of his country. And at the Grün he spent regularly eight months of every year, in the enjoyment of his flowers, his lawns, his espaliers, his fish-ponds, etc., etc., and, above all, of his favorite trees.

If there be a spot on earth where Herr von Linden's innocent hobby could find full scope for its gratification, it was the district where the Grün was situated. Timber grew there to perfection, and I doubt whether far-famed St. Gingolphe itself could exhibit such glorious specimens of chestnut, and oak-trees as graced the park of the Grün and the common outside. Those on the common belonged to the parish, but not the less tenderly did Herr von Linden's solicitude extend to them. He paid them regular visits, knew all of them by heart, as it were, and could have drawn an exact picture of the handsomest of them from memory. Unfortunately, this sort of catholic fondness exposed him to frequent disappointments and heartburnings; for the parish entertained no sentimental or esthetic notions about its trees, but looked upon them with very matter-of-fact eyes, which only saw in them what they would fetch in the market. Those were days of mourning at the castle in which such bargains were concluded; and not a blow of the fatal axe but echoed painfully through the frame of the lord of the castle. So intense, indeed, was his disgust at what he held to be both a profanation and a kind of murder, that for weeks and months after one of these executions, he would not stir out of his own precincts. But Herr von Linden was a stout man of fifty, somewhat plethoric and short-winded, and his doctor, who was also his friend, was forever prescribing exercise—real exercise, and not mere sauntering, or driving; and thus it would come to pass that, after long demurring, the elderly gentleman, some fine day or other, would put his campstool under his arm, stalk through his park gates along a green lane which skirted the grounds of the Grün for a good mile, and so on till he reached the

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common, or, according to the alias he had bestowed upon it, "The Field of the Massacre."

There were still not a few remarkable and respectable looking trees, but the superlatively fine had all gone, all but one, either accidentally or intentionally spared—an oak of magnificent dimensions, and of the most perfect beauty. It stood, a glorious beacon, at the junction of the lane with the highway. Herr von Linden would always stop at the distance which secured him the most complete view of this monarch of the common, never failing to say, while opening his campstool, "Let us feast our eyes on that beautiful creature yonder while we can—it won't be for long."

"Suppose you were to buy it," suggested one day his sister, the faithful confidant of his sorrows and companion of his walks.

"Buy it!" repeated von Linden.

"Yes, and so make sure that no one can deprive you of the pleasure of seeing it."

"By jove! a good idea. I wonder it never came into my head. Buy it I will, if only the Corporation will sell it."

"The Corporation are too shrewd not to catch at an offer which leaves them their tree, and puts its price in their pocket."

"We shall see," said the brother.

It was market day at the neighboring little town, and peasant men and women were coming back from it, in couples, in groups, alone; some in carts, most on foot. Herr von Linden hailed a solitary wayfarer, who was passing on his side of the road, and asked him, "Do you belong to the parish of Tattiken?"

The man stopped short, and, staring vacantly at the questioner, took time to consider whether he did or did not belong to it. However, upon the question being again put to him, he replied, yes, that he did live at the village so named.

"And do you know the President?" (another name for the mayor in Switzerland) continues Herr von Linden.

"The President? Karl the Miller? Of course I do!"

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"Very well, then; will you have the goodness to tell the President that Herr von Linden wishes to buy that oak yonder—to buy it at the price the Corporation shall think fit to name, and binds himself not to cut it down, or destroy, or damage it in any way, but to preserve it as it is, an ornament to the country? I speak seriously," added Herr von Linden, somewhat sternly, to check a growing disposition in his listener to look would-be knowing; "I speak in downright earnest. I am Herr von Linden, and what I now pledge myself to, I am ready to put on paper and sign. In one word, I propose to buy the oak, pay for it, and leave it as it is—do you understand? You do—very well, I need not detain you any longer. Good afternoon."

Had the message with which he was intrusted been at all an ordinary one ten to one but our man would have forgotten all about it in no time, for honest Peter, let us christen him so, was returning from market, and was therefore in that blessed condition of confirmed tipsiness, in which are the majority of his class returning from market. As it was, the message of which he was the bearer was so novel, and out of the common, that every word of it forced its way into his muddled brain, and floated victoriously there above the fumes of liquor, which kept it spinning like a teetotum. Peter went straight to the inn to do Herr von Linden's message. The inn plays an important part everywhere, but nowhere a more important one than in the canton in which Tattiken is situated; all public and private business is transacted there, *inter pocula;* it is there that the town council hold their sittings, that political or commercial meetings assemble, that litigations are settled, arguments entered into, bargains made, etc., etc. Peter was sure of finding the President there.

The President treated Peter's communication as the ravings of a man in his cups, that is, with supreme incredulity and contempt. Herr von Linden, argued the President, knew better than to pay the price of anything for the mere pleasure of doing so—if any such proposal had really passed his lips, it was merely to amuse himself at the expense of

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the persons he was addressing. Poor Peter was too far gone to make an effectual stand in defence of the authenticity of the proposition, or of the seriousness with which it had been made, and he had to go to his bed utterly snubbed and discomfited.

But when, on the morrow, being sober, or nearly so, he returned to the charge, and insisted and persisted in what he had said, repeating *verbatim* Herr von Linden's own expressions on the subject, the President's incredulity lost somewhat of its pertinacity, and he condescended so far as to admit that the matter ought to be sifted and made clear. To which effect, an hour or so after, both the President and Peter, in their Sunday suits and with Chinese-wall-like shirt collars, were ringing for admittance at the gate of the Grün.

"They bring you the oak," said Jungfrau von Linden, at sight of them.

"Maybe," answered her brother, "but I should wonder much, for they never do aught in a hurry *chi va piano va sano* is their motto."

He received the visitors in the stone veranda opening on the garden. A servant brought a tray on which were a bottle of wine and two glasses, which he immediately filled. Herr von Linden was known never to drink wine between his meals, and the fact was little to his advantage among his neighbors. The two, being invited so to do, emptied their glasses, which, done, the President expounded the object of their visit. Herr von Linden in reply fully confirmed Peter's statement, and answered with perfect good humor the various questions which the President thought fit to ask. The interview was short, and apparently satisfactory to all parties. The President took leave, promising to seize the earliest opportunity to place before the council Herr von Linden's proposal, and to make known to him the result.

It is recorded of a Parisian that he laid a wager and won it, that he would offer for sale on the Pont Neuf pieces of five francs at half their value, and find no purchasers

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beyond a certain number, the maximum of whom he fixed at a very low figure. It is rare that too advantageous a bargain does not beget suspicion of foul play, and the *Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes* is after all a natural feeling. That a man of Herr von Linden's stamp, generous if you will, but of too much good sense to throw money away, should pay for the oak without getting some equivalent, seemed to the President such an absurd notion, that he could not bring himself to entertain it for a moment. And as to ever fancying that this equivalent could be found in the satisfaction of preserving a tree, and the pleasure of looking at it, this was a finesse of sentiment too alien to his nature for him even to dream of it in others. The only conclusion, therefore, at which he could arrive, was that Herr von Linden's proposal concealed a snare, and that the Corporation must look sharp about them if they did not wish to be taken in. The President was too great an authority, and his view chimed in too well with a certain preconception prevalent in the village, not to find favor with most of those to whom it was communicated. Yes, it was clear that there was a snake in the grass, and half the parish went to their beds that night revolving in their minds what could be the hidden insidious purpose which lurked under the apparently fair offer made by Herr von Linden—indeed, looking upon him somewhat in the light of a public enemy.

To account for this feeling, we must say that the eminent personage of whom we are writing, possessed as he was of many of the requisites which make a man popular, yet was far from being so in the parish which owed him so much. The great improvements and embellishments which he had effected at the Grün had naturally necessitated an enormous outlay of money; some of which, much or little as it might be, had found its way into each and all of the cottages around; add to which, that the amount of parochial taxes assessed upon him reached a sum far beyond that paid by the whole parish; that no local improvement but was defrayed by him; that no private misfortune but found al-

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leviation at his hands. Why, then, was he not popular? Simply because he was a *ci-devant*, an aristocrat, which in a canton long ruled by the aristocracy, and only from yesterday in the hands of the purest democracy, meant a man not to be trusted, an adversary, almost an enemy. Did Herr von Linden busy himself with politics, tamper with the electors, use his influence and fortune to secure the return of conservative members? Did he in any way oppose, or only by word of mouth traduce the powers that were? Nothing of the sort. Other was the head and front of his offending. That for which Herr von Linden was found fault with, that which made him an aristocrat was, that he had a *Von* prefixed to his name; that his servants wore a livery; that he kept aloof from his neighbors, the peasantry; that while receiving lots of fine ladies and gentlemen at the castle he had never so much as said to any of the best men in the parish, men in authority, men invested by the people with a part of its sovereignty—that to such men he had never so much as said—"Come and have a bottle at the Grün,"—never so much as even shaken hands with them. It was these airs of superiority, as they were styled, which stood between Herr von Linden and popular favor.

To return. We left half the parish occupied in the search after the secret object of Herr von Linden's insidious proposal. There is nothing like seeking in order to find, and by dint of seeking, the President found. Here was his fiat—Herr von Linden aimed at nothing less than the transferring of the oak to his own grounds. There!

Great as was their respect for the President's penetration, and great as was their inclination to find Herr von Linden guilty, the few councilmen extra-officially assembled at the inn, to whom the President imparted his wonderful dicovery, received it with unmistakable signs of incredulity. "How could he manage it—an oak of such dimensions—the thing was impossible."

"A moment" cried the President, piqued. "Your incredulity, excuse me for saying so, only proves your igno-

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rance, otherwise you would be aware that lately in Paris, appliances have been found, by means of which the biggest trees may be uprooted as easily as a bottle is uncorked, and transplanted at any distance. And who can be sure whether one of these contrivances is not at this very hour in the cellars of the castle, ready for use the moment we sell our oak?"

"But," objected one of the dissidents, "has not Herr von Linden engaged to leave the oak as it is?"

"Ah! to be sure!" was the President's ironical rejoinder, "to leave the oak as it is; but did he engage to leave the oak *where* it is?"

The acuteness of this argument achieved what the information about the Parisian invention had begun—it brought conviction home to all present. Yes, that was it; Herr von Linden wanted to rob them of their tree, to beautify his park at the expense of the parish. It was a shame—a crying shame. Some were for immediately convoking the town council, and rejecting the proposal with public scorn. Others considered the measure insufficient, and contended that the Corporation owed it to themselves to give Herr von Linden a piece of their mind.

"Not before we have heard what he has to say for himself," interposed the President. "Even the greatest culprit has a right to defend himself. Let us proceed legally. Let a deputation wait on Herr von Linden, and hear what he has to say in his own justification."

It was not every day that the Grün could be entered, and the master thereof brought down to a footing of equality with the Corporation; the occasion was too rare not to be improved. So it happened that the gates of the Grün saw once more the Sunday suit, and the Chinese-wall-like collar of the President accompanied by two councilmen, pass through them.

At sight of the three approaching, Jungfrau von Linden exclaimed, "This time, brother, you may make sure of your oak."

"This time, I don't say no," answered Herr von Lin-

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den; and hastened to receive the deputation. In fact he made so sure of the oak being his own, that he said, in high good humor—"Well, gentlemen, I suppose we may consider the affair settled."

"Not yet," replied the President; "there is a point or two on which we have to request some elucidations."

Herr von Linden's disappointment and pique at this speech were extreme; he started from his seat as if he had been stung by a wasp, and said, "I have been sufficiently cross-examined, I peremptorily refuse to give any further explanations. Keep your tree or not, as you please, but leave me my time. I am very busy just now, and must therefore wish you good-day."

So saying, Herr von Linden walked off. The deputation, left alone, looked at each other, looked at the bottle just being brought in by the servant to no purpose, and then took their departure.

The party assembled at the inn had in the meantime received considerable accessions, and expectation was at its highest when the discomfited deputation returned. We renounce the attempt to describe the commotion produced by the account of the reception they had met; it was like the falling of a lighted match upon a heap of dried leaves. What! was this the way the magistrates chosen by the people were to be treated! Treated thus, too, by one who, it might be averred, had been caught with his hand in the pocket of the parish! It was not to be borne. The matter could not be allowed to rest here. An example ought to be made. The Great Council must be instantly memorialized.

A session of the assembly, more heated than the rest (it was composed of these zealous citizens who had sat over their wine for the last three hours), spurned memorializing, and were for doing something—they knew not what, but something awful.

"You will do nothing of the kind, if you will be guided by me" said the President, who chose to act the part of the moderator again. "Let us be forbearing to the end. It behooves the representatives of the people to be above all pas-

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sion. The master of the Grün—I don't mean to exculpate him, he has been wrong, very wrong, throughout the whole of this affair—but the master of the Grün is entitled to some consideration. Don't let us be hard on him. Don't let us deprive him of the power of explaining and making amends. I move that Herr von Linden be invited to be present at the sitting of the Corporation, which is to be held tomorrow, in order that he may give such explanations as may be deemed necessary."

It needed all the influence and persuasion of the President to carry the motion, not to speak of sundry *apartés*, such as "Don't you see that to have him here is the fullest amends we can desire?" The throw, in fact, was clever enough if it would only catch. To have Herr von Linden there, to have him much in the position of a criminal in the dock, and to sit in judgment upon him, was a double satisfaction, the mere prospect of which was enough to make all mouths water.

The result of the deliberation was, that late in the afternoon of that memorable day, a great *pancarte* was brought to Herr von Linden, which had been left at the lodge by the beadle of the parish. The contents of the document were as follows:

"Herr von Linden of the Grün is requested by the Corporation of Tittiken to attend the meeting to be held tomorrow at ten A. M., in order that he may give such verbal explanation in reference to his proposal of purchasing the oak as the Corporation may deem advisable to require.

"For the Corporation,

"THE PRESIDENT."

"Upon my word," said Herr von Linden to his sister, "these good people have lost their wits," and he forthwith wrote a few hasty lines upon the outside of the envelope he had just received, and sent it back at once to the President. The lines were as follows:

"In answer to the enclosed communication, the undersigned begs to inform the Corporation of Tattiken that he

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withdraws purely and simply his application to become the purchaser of the oak.

"H. von Linden."

In the afternoon of the next day, another big envelope was deposited at the castle, the contents of which ran thus:

"The undersigned is commissioned by the Corporation of Tattiken to lay before Herr von Linden the decision as to his application.

"And first of all disposing of the incident raised by Herr von Linden's communication of yesterday:

"The Corporation in council assembled has unanimously declared the withdrawal of Herr von Linden's proposal to be illegal, void, and of no effect.

"Passing to the merit of the application itself:

"Considering the insufficiency and unsatisfactoriness of the explanations vouchsafed by Herr von Linden,

"Considering his refusal further to enlighten either the deputation sent to him for that purpose, or the whole corporation according to invitation,

"The Corporation in council assembled in date of this day, have, with one voice, resolved,

"That it would be inconsistent with their dignity, and unsafe for the interests of the parish, to take into consideration Herr von Linden's said application.

"For the Corporation,

"The President."

Herr von Linden was so shocked by this piece of impertinence, altogether so embittered by the gratuitous ill-will evinced towards him throughout all this business, that he left the Grün with his sister, and went to travel.

Shortly after his departure, the tree, the innocent cause of all this ill blood, was sold to a railway contractor, and disappeared. If you pass through Tattiken, the villagers will point out to you the place where it once stood, and tell you to this day of the narrow escape the parish had of being cheated of their oak by a designing aristocrat of the neighborhood.

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# Milton and Vondel

By Carl H. Grabo

MANY of the so-called "sources" of "Paradise Lost" have been known to students of Milton for two hundred years. Milton was one of the most learned of poets; he had assimilated all the best literature of antiquity and of the Renaissance and he was conversant with all that was significant in the writings of contemporary poets in all the chief languages of Europe. When in the maturity of his powers he essayed in epic form the story of the fall of man, a work he had long contemplated, he lavished on his theme the poetic accumulations of a lifetime of diligent study. "Paradise Lost" is, thus, a composite of many diverse elements derived from the finest poetry of all ages, the whole blended into an artistic whole by a creative talent which made of old and familiar materials a new thing. To unravel the fabric so wrought into its component threads is to examine it not as a work of art, but as a mass of raw material; yet the exercise is an interesting one and is frequently indulged in by literary scholars. Thanks to them we may form some conception of the erudition of Milton to the increase of our admiration for his ability as a scholar and a poet.

It is with the most recent research into Milton's indebtedness to other poets that we are here concerned, however, ignoring his obvious use of materials drawn from classical sources. For, curiously enough, the author to whom Milton seems to owe the most has, until very recently, been overlooked. Vondel, the great Dutch poet and contemporary of Milton, a man in every respect worthy to be classed with him as a poet and scholar, exercised it is now apparent an extraordinary influence upon him, an influence which is all pervasive. For an examination of the works of both poets reveals many striking analogies both in the general conception and treatment of kindred subjects and in the very form of expression. And it is obvious from certain evidence that aside from the borrowings which Mil-



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ton and Vondel made from common sources, the English poet was in all such parallelisms indebted to his Dutch contemporary.

Doubtless it is because the Dutch language is so little known today outside of Holland that Vondel, the greatest figure in Dutch literature, is unfamiliar to English readers. Yet so far as may be determined from the little of his work translated into English and from the criticisms of competent scholars he was a poet of surpassing merit, one who handled the Dutch language with ease and power, and a writer who was equally successful in the composition of dramatic, lyric, epic, and satirical poetry.

Vondel was born in 1587 and lived to the great age of ninety-one. He was a tireless worker and although his genius blossomed late he produced a vast amount of work, over thirty plays and numerous translations from the Greek and Latin comprising only a part of his varied activity. He was also a great scholar, acquiring a perfect mastery of Greek after the age of forty and reproducing, it is said, in certain of his plays the exact spirit and form of Greek tragedy. It should be noted, also, that he was an ardent patriot, one whose pen was ever at the service of that political party which best supported the cause of freedom and toleration.

This brief sketch may suffice to indicate the importance of Vondel in the literary and political history of Holland. It needs only a few words to place those of his works which are important to our discussion because of their direct influence upon Milton: The "Lucifer," a drama picturing the struggle in heaven and the expulsion of the rebellious angels, was published and presented in 1654; "John the Messenger of Repentence," an epic, in 1662; "Samson," a drama in the Greek style, in 1660.

It is interesting and important to compare these dates with certain dates in Milton's career: "Paradise Lost," begun in 1658, four years after the publication of Vondel's "Lucifer," was only in part written in 1662, the date of the publication of "John the Messenger;" it was completed in 1665. "Samson Agonistes," begun not earlier than 1665, five

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years after the publication of Vondel's "Samson," was published in 1671. In all of these parallels it is important to observe that the works of Vondel which are supposed to influence Milton antedate by four or five years in each case the corresponding English poem.

It then becomes necessary to demonstrate that Milton was acquainted with Vondel's work There is no direct evidence that this was the case, but aside from the parallelisms in form and substance, internal evidence which is alone sufficient to prove the case, there are other facts which show it to be extremely probable that Milton was familiar with Vondel's work. Mr. George Edmundson* who has made the most thorough study of the subject, cites some highly interesting evidence which indicates that Milton may have heard of Vondel so early as 1638 when Milton, then on a tour of Europe, called upon Hugo Grotius in his exile in Paris. Grotius was a warm friend of Vondel, and at the time of Milton's visit was, it is known, particularly full of the Dutch poet's recent successes, one of which was dedicated to Grotius himself. Later it is certain that Milton learned Dutch, his instructor being none other than Roger Williams who is identified with the early history of Rhode Island. This was in 1654, the very year of the publication of Vondel's "Lucifer." It seems inevitable, therefore, that Milton should become acquainted with the new drama which in this year was exciting much interest in Holland and was, after two performances, withdrawn from the stage, this action being forced by the ultra Calvinistic preachers who condemned the play as "unholy, immodest, idolatrous, false." There are other evidences at this time of Milton's interest in things Dutch, notably his wordy war with the Dutch scholar Morus, but the point needs no further elaboration: more vital, and more interesting is the discussion of the remarkable parallels in certain of the literary masterpieces of Vondel and Milton.

The "Lucifer" at once challenges comparison with

*"Milton and Vondel: A Curiosity of Literature," by George Edmundson, M. A., 1885.

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"Paradise Lost" by reason of its great similarity of subject. Both deal with the rebellion of the angels and the consequent fall of man due to the revengeful seductions of the arch fiend In the "Lucifer" the emphasis is upon the revolt and its motives; in "Paradise Lost" upon the effect of this on mankind. "Paradise Lost" is, also, far longer, with a greater wealth of detail as might be expected in an epic, a form which permitted of greater scope and freedom than a drama devised for actual presentation.

The "Argument" of "Lucifer" as set forth by Vondel is as follows:

"Lucifer, the Archangel, chief and most illustrious of all the Angels, proud and ambitious, out of blind self-love envied God His boundless greatness; he also became jealous of man, made in God's image, to whom in his delightful paradise, was entrusted the sovereignty of the earth.

"He envied God and man the more when Gabriel, God's Herald, proclaiming all Angels to be but ministering Spirits, revealed the mysteries of God's future incarnation, whereby, the Angels being passed by, the real nature of man united with the Godhead might expect a power and majesty equal to God's own. Therefore, the proud and envious Spirit attempting to place himself on an equality with God, and to keep man out of Heaven, through his accomplices, incited to arms innumerable Angels, and led them, notwithstanding Rafaels' warning, against Michael, Heaven's Field-marshal, and his legions; and ceasing the fight, after his defeat, he caused, out of revenge, the first man, and in him all his descendants, to fall, while he himself, with all his co-rebels, was plunged into hell and eternal damnation."

The story as set forth by acts may be thus briefly summarized:

Act I. Apollion, who has been sent by Lucifer, the Stadholder of Heaven to observe God's new creation, earth and our parents Adam and Eve, returns to report his discoveries. Eden he describes as most beautiful, rivalling Heaven in attractiveness; its fruit, of which he bears an apple. more luscious than the food of Paradise. The earthly inhabitants, also, he describes as

"Of equal beauty they from head to foot."

Adam excels in strength, Eve in softer loveliness. Apollion, indeed, becomes enthusiastic in his description of Eve's charms, so that Beelzebub exclaims:

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"It seems that passion for
This feminine creature hath thy heart enflamed."

To which Apollion replies:

"In that delightful blaze, my great wing-plumes I singed."

The happiness of Adam and Eve pictured by Apollion is to persist while they eat of the tree of life which grows in Eden and they and their progeny are destined to become the peers of the Angels, even to surpass them all, for man has the power of multiplying indefinitely and thus excelling in numbers the angels. The act ends with a chorus of angels chanting God's praise because of his new and wonderful creation.

Act II: In the opening of the second act Lucifer bemoans his fate, that chief among the angels, the first of the Heavenly creation, he is destined to be surpassed by the new race of men who, born on the sixth day, are nevertheless to be nearer God. With the aid of Beelzebub, Belial, and Apollion Lucifer plots to resist the will of God, determining to maintain his ancient glory rather than tamely to submit to man's advancement. That failure is probable he realizes even though he win over a good part of the angels to his cause. But says Lucifer in words which strangely anticipate Milton's phrase of "Better to reign in Hell than serve in Heaven:"

"To be the first prince in some lower court
Is better than within the blessed light
To be the second, or even less."

Lucifer forthwith demands of Gabriel the reason for God's latest creation. Gabriel replies darkly that only time can reveal God's purpose, which is sufficient unto itself. The duty of the angels is unquestioningly to obey. He says to Lucifer:

"Content thee with
Thy lot, the rank and state and worthiness
Once granted thee by God."

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Angered by the unsatisfactory statement of the case, and egged on by his advisers, Lucifer flares out again:

"Now I swear by my crown, upon this chance
To venture all, to raise my seat amid
The firmament, the spheres, the splendor of
The stars above. The Heaven of Heavens shall then
My palace be, the rainbow be my throne,
The starry vast, my court, while down beneath
The earth shall be my footstool and support.

* * * * * *

Who dares, who dares defy great Lucifer."*

Rebellion is therefore determined upon though it is asserted that God's throne shall not be attacked. The aim is to overcome the legions of God commanded by Michael and thus control the Heavens.

Act III opens with antiphonal choruses of the followers of Lucifer and the loyal angels, the former lamenting their debasement, the latter the discord which the revolt is creating in Heaven. The Luciferians state their grievance; the Angels counsel submission, saying that God's will is inscrutable, whatever it pleases him to do, right. The cohorts of Michael then withdraw and the Luciferians promise allegiance to their chief, urging him to lead them to battle whatever betide.

Act IV pictures the preparations for the battle. Michael arms himself to defend Heaven against the rebellious legions which number a third of the celestial spirits. Rafael meanwhile attempts conciliation, promising Lucifer mercy if he submits to God. Lucifer though not openly defying God refuses to lay aside his arms, asserting that he and his followers must maintain their rights which God had previously granted. Rafael, however, detects Lucifer's ambitious purpose in his revolt, to raise himself to a place of honor equal to that of God. Rafael warns Lucifer that his only hope lies in praying for mercy. But Lucifer though doubting the

*The quotations are taken from the translation of "Lucifer" made by Leonard Charles van Noppen. Continental Publishing Company, New York, 1898.

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outcome feels he has gone too far to retreat and persists in his determination to fight.

Act V relates the story of the conflict as told by Uriel. The fight, uncertain at first, is decided when Michael confronting Lucifer overcomes him and hurls him from heaven. His followers, disheartened, are driven after him to be chained in hell. Immediately upon their expulsion, however, Lucifer and his cohorts take council and revenge themselves by tempting Eve to man's undoing. Belial accomplishes this purpose in the guise of the serpent and Adam and Eve are driven from Eden. But one hope is given man's posterity, the promise of salvation attained through the incarnation of the Son of God. The play ends with a chorus of angels who picture the better time which is to be.

The close resemblance of the story of "Lucifer" to that of "Paradise Lost" will be at once evident as well as the differences. "Paradise Lost" includes all the story of Vondel's drama and as well the story of the Fall told in far greater detail, together with a full account of the creation. In characterization there are also great resemblances. Satan and Lucifer are very similar and around these characters the story of both the drama and the epic is woven. But the resemblance does not stop here; similarities of language and figures of speech are also very numerous, some of them so striking that the parallels are not to be explained by mere coincidence. Milton, it is apparent, had absorbed Vondel's work and, consciously or not, made it a part of his own epic. An illustration or two will suffice to indicate the nature of Milton's indebtedness. The passage of Vondel describing Adam and Eve runs in part as follows:

> "No creature hath on high mine eyes so pleased,
> As these below. Who can so deftly soul
> With body knit, and twofold angels mould
> From clay and bone? Their body's shapely frame
> Proclaims the Maker's art, which in the face,
> The mirror of the mind, is chiefly shown.
> Each limb with wonder strikes, but in the glance
> I saw the image of the soul revealed.
> Their form displays each loveliness that here
> One singly finds. From human eyes a gleam
> Divine darts forth. The face's lineaments

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Express the reasoning soul. While the dumb beasts,
Of reason void, look downward to their feet,
Man proudly lifts alone his head to Heaven
In lofty praise towards God, who made him thus."
—I. 104-117.

"Both man and wife are shaped with equal grace,
Perfect from head to foot. Adam of right
In valor's trait and dignity of form
Excels, as ruler of the earth elect.
But all a bridegroom lists in Eve is found—
Fineness of limb, a softer flesh and skin,
A kindlier tint, and eyes of ravishment."
—I. 151-157.

There shines no seraph bright in heavenly courts
. . . . . .
Like Eve amidst her hanging hair, a screen
Of golden beams, which from the head streams down
In waves of light, and falls upon her back."*
—I. 168-171.

Compare with this a corresponding passage in Milton:

"Two of far nobler shape, erect and tall,
Godlike erect, with native honor clad
In naked majesty, seemed lords of all,
And worthy seemed; for in their looks divine
The image of their glorious Maker shone.
. . . . . .

Nor equal, as their sex not equal seemed;
For contemplation he and valor formed,
For softness she and sweet attractive grace.

His fair large front and eye sublime declared
Absolute rule.
. . . . . .

She as a veil down to the slender waist
Her unadorned golden tresses wore
Disheveled, but in wanton ringlets waved."
—P. L. 288-292, 296-298, 300-301, 304-306.

One further parallel—this taken from Vondel's "John the Baptist," which like the "Lucifer" was apparently well known to Milton. The description is of the Archangel sent to John the Baptist. Thus Vondel:

"So spake the Almighty: and in haste prepares
The Archangel for descent, unfolds his wings,
Splendid as phoenix plumes, with sky-blue tinged,
And gold and purple dyes, amidst the light

*Edmundson's translation.

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Wherein God sits enshrined. The colors change
And mingle, each with each, in varied shades,
Like rainbow tints or peacock's feathered hues
Beneath the sunlight, which beats down direct.
Equipt for flight, he upward springs and strikes
His wings together thrice. The angel quires
Look around, and with their gaze attend his flight,
While downward prone he speeds, and sweeps
From round to round, and, as he falls, descries
Jerusalem, that heavenward seems to lift
Its crowned brow enthroned amidst the hills,
By which the royal town is girdled round;
Then wheeled his course beyond great Jordan's stream,
Where the waste desert, bare of herbage, lay.
Here paused the Archangel, hov'ring on his wings
Right o'er the solitary ceil, just as
An eagle, who at last a spring has spied,
Down swooping at the babble of the stream,
With refreshing water slakes his thirst."

—I. 126-147.

This passage is paralleled in Milton in the description of Rafael's descent to Eden:

"So spake the Eternal Father, and fulfilled
All justice. Nor delayed the winged saint
After his charge received; but from among
Thousand celestial ardours, where he stood
Veiled with his gorgeous wings, upspringing light,
Flew through the midst of Heaven. The angelic quires,
On each hand parting, to his speed gave way.
. . . . . .

From hence.....
.....he sees,
Not unconform to other shining globes,
Earth and the Garden of God, with cedars crowned
Above all hills.....
.....Down thither prone in flight
He speeds,.....
.....till, within soar
Of towering eagles, to all the fowls he seems
A phoenix, gazed by all as that sole bird.
.....
.....Six wings he wore to shade
His lineaments divine; the pair that clad
Each shoulder broad came mantling o'er his breast
With regal ornament; the middle pair
Girt like a starry zone his waist, and round
Skirted his loins and thighs with downy gold
And colors dipt in Heaven; the third his feet
Shadowed from either heel with feathered mail,
Sky tinctured grain. Like Maia's son he stood
And shook his plumes.....
.....
Him Adam discerned as in the door he sat

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Of his cool bower, where now the mounted sun
Shot down direct his fervid rays."

—P. L., V. 246-252, 258-262, 266-267, 270-272, 277-286, 299-301.

These striking resemblances are repeated again and again as a more careful study of the works of Milton and Vondel will reveal. Mr. Edmundson, the scholar previously quoted, has gathered a large number of such passages. Indeed over one hundred striking parallelisms of lines or passages from the "Lucifer" with the "Paradise Lost" have been noted and recorded. Equally interesting parallels may be found as was pointed out between "John the Messenger" and "Paradise Lost." Mr. Edmundson, indeed, continues his investigations into the resemblances of Milton's "Samson Agonistes" to Vondel's "Samson," finding here again repeated instances of Milton's indebtedness to Vondel. But into this question we need not go. The curious will find the evidence in Mr. Edmundson's volume previously referred to.

Doubtless were Milton a modern poet he would, because of his adaptations, be accused of plagiarism. The charge is not entirely just, for in Milton's time poetic property was more or less common property. Milton himself defended the use of another man's material provided the borrower bettered what he borrowed. But a study of the English poet's indebtedness does at least serve to raise Vondel in our esteem. The Dutch poet displays a loftiness of imagination which must be acknowedged no whit inferior to Milton's. Nor does Milton's introductory invocation in the "Paradise Lost" seem entirely ingenuous:

"..... I thence
Invoke thy aid to my adventurous song
That with no middle flight intends to soar
Above the Aonian mount, while it pursues
Things unattempted yet in prose or rhyme."

Milton was not the first to tell the story of the fall of man. Supreme excellence in the treatment of the theme may be accorded him, but he has no claim to priority and his indebtedness to his great predecessor is apparent.

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## In Holland

By Clinton Scollard

League upon league of low and level land;
  Long poplar lines and willows silvery;
  Windmills with giant arms that seem to be
Uneasy ever; slender spires that stand
Against a changeful sky, now dark, now bland,
  As veer the breezes from the northern sea;
  Sleek herds that graze in meadows peacefully;
And water-ways by small, quaint bridges spanned.

This land is Holland; but should ocean rise,
  As on some murky night perchance it may,
  And smite and burst the mighty barrier-wall,
  Then there will lie, when dawns the grim gray day,
A watery waste beneath the weeping skies,
  Death and the sea triumphant over all.



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Edmond Rostand, the Celebrated Dramatist, Member of the French Academy, in the formal Dress of that Body.

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Monument by Barrias, to the Memory of Victor Hugo, Paris.

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**The Molière Fountain, Paris, with Statue of the Dramatist.**

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Monument to Alexander Dumas, Paris.

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**Statue of William Tell, Altdorf, Switzerland.**

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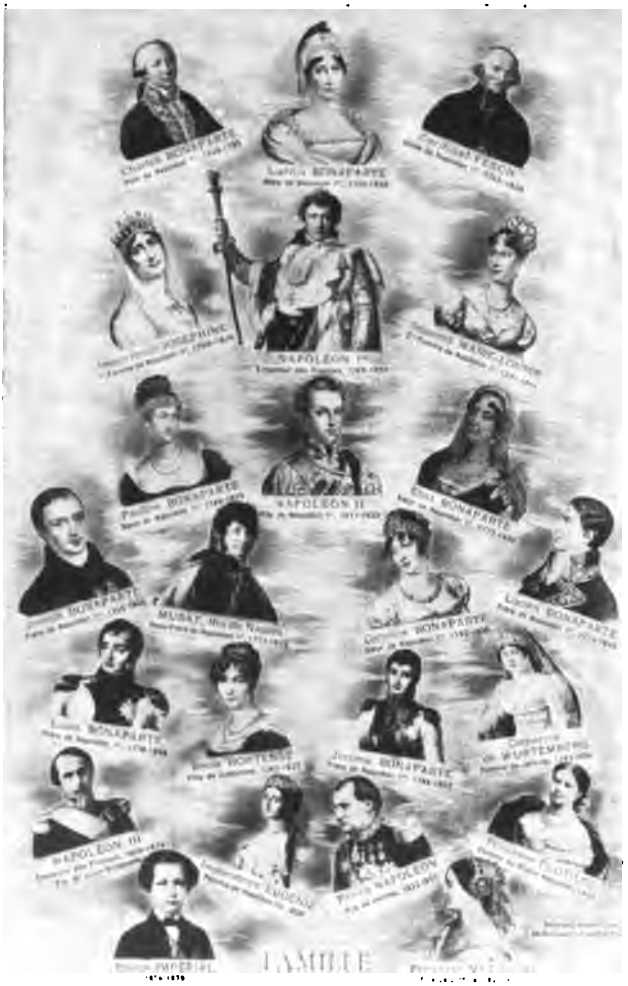
NAPOLEON-BONAPARTE

**The Family of Napoleon Bonaparte.**

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# The Vesper Hour

## Human Experience*

Conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent

LET us survey our position.

We find ourselves for a few score years incarnate intelligences of this planet; we have not always been here, we shall not always be here: we are here in fact, each of us, for but a very short period; but we can study the conditions of existence while here, and we perceive clearly that a certain amount of guidance and control are in our hands. For better or for worse we can, and our legislators do, influence the destinies of the planet. The process is called "making history." We can all, even the humblest, to some extent influence the destinies of individuals with whom we come in contact. We have therefore a certain sense of power and responsibility.

It is not likely that we are the only or the highest intelligent agents in the whole wide universe, nor that we possess faculties and powers denied to all else; nor is it likely that our own activity will be always as limited as it is now. The Parable of the Talents is full of meaning, and it contains a meaning that is not often brought out.

It is absurd to deny the attributes of guidance and intelligence and personality and love to the Whole, seeing that we are a part of the Whole, and are personally aware of what we mean by those words in ourselves. These attributes are existent therefore, and cannot be denied; cannot be denied even to the Deity.

Is the planet subject to intelligent control? We know that it is: we ourselves can change the course of rivers for predestined ends, we can make highways, can unite oceans,

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*From "Science and Immortality," by Sir Oliver Lodge. Published by Moffat, Yard and Company: New York. 1908. $2 net. The quoted extracts will serve to illustrate the breadth of the author's point of view. A leader in modern science, he nevertheless understands the limited field of scientific thought and seeks in this book to reassert the spiritual truths which underlie religious experiences and beliefs.



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can devise inventions, can make new compounds, can transmute species, can plan fresh variety of organic life; we can create works of art; we can embody new ideas and lofty emotions in forms of language and music, and can leave them as Platonic offspring to remote posterity. Our power is doubtless limited, but we can surely learn to do far more than we have yet so far in the infancy of humanity accomplished; more even than we have yet conjectured as within the range of possibility.

Our progress has already been considerable. It is but a moderate time since our greatest men were chipping flints and carving bones into the likeness of reindeer. More recently they became able to build cathedrals and make poems. Now we are momentarily diverted from immortal pursuits by vivid interest in that kind of competition which has replaced the competition of the sword, and by those extraordinary inequalities of possession and privilege which have resulted from the invention of an indestructible and transmissible form of riches, a form over which neither moth nor rust has any power. We raise an increase in smoke, and offer sacrifices of squalor and ugliness, in worship of this new idol. But it will pass; human life is not meant to continue as it is now in city slums; nor is the strenuous futility of mere accumulation likely to satisfy people when once they have been really educated; the world is beautiful and may be far more widely happy than it has been yet. Those who have preached this hitherto have been heard with deaf ears, but some day we shall awake to a sense of our true planetary importance and shall recognize the higher possibilities of existence. Then shall we realize and practically believe what is involved in those words of poetic insight:

"The heaven, even the heavens are the Lord's: but the earth hath He given to the children of men."

There is a vast truth in this yet to be discovered; power and influence and responsibility lie before us, appalling in their magnitude, and as yet we are but children playing on the stage before the curtain is rolled up for the drama in which we are to take part.

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But we are not left to our own devices: we of this living generation are not alone in the universe. What we call the individual is strengthened by elements emerging from the social whole out of which he is born. We are not things of yesterday, nor of tomorrow. We do not indeed remember our past, we are not aware of our future, but in common with everything else we must have had a past and must be going to have a future. Some day we may find ourselves able to realize both.

Meanwhile, what has been our experience here? We have not been left solitary. Every newcomer to the planet, however helpless and strange he be, finds friends awaiting him, devoted and self-sacrificing friends, eager to care for and protect his infancy and to train him in the ways of this curious world. It is typical of what goes on throughout conscious existence; the guidance which we exert, and to which we are subject now, is but a phase of something running through the universe. And when the time comes for us to quit this sphere and enter some larger field of action, I doubt not that we shall find there also that kindness and help and patience and love, without which no existence would be tolerable or even at some stages possible.

Miracles lie all around us: only they are not miraculous. Special providences envelop us: only they are not special. Prayer is a means of communication as natural and as simple as is speech.

Realize that you are a part of a great orderly and mutually helpful cosmos, that you are not stranded or isolated in a foreign universe, but that you are part of it and closely akin to it; and your sense of sympathy will be enlarged, your power of free communication will be opened, prayer will come as easily and as naturally as converse with those human friends and relations whose visible bodily presence gladdens and enriches your present life.

* * * * * * * * *

## Aids to Worship

First of all, then, let us ask is it true that any worshipper, however spiritually minded, can dispense altogether

with material facts as an aid to the expression and realization of spiritual trust, and as an external stimulus to the attitude of worship? Can the spiritual and the material, in fact, be entirely and utterly discriminated and separated? I will not ask whether such separation is or is not desirable; I will not point out how much loss would be sustained if it were practicable—how fatal to half of nature such an achievement would immediatcly be; but I will simply ask, is it ever done, as a fact? I believe that a little consideration will show that it is never really accomplished, and that some material agent is active even in the most refined and spiritual perceptions. It will at least be admitted that in the case of some religiously minded persons the sights and sounds of nature awaken a sense of Divine presence. In others the same feelings are aroused by hearing of some human action, or by meeting other human beings with whom they are in sympathy. Some men are carried Godward by beauty, others by truth, others by goodness; and some even by the commonplace actions of daily life. A remarkable face, casually encountered, or a word even from a stranger, has been known occasionally to call up thoughts akin to worship, even in the most unritualistic follower of George Fox.

> "Just when we are safest, there's a sunset touch,
> A fancy from a flower-bell, some one's death,
> A chorus ending from Euripides,—
> And that's enough for fifty hopes and fears
> As old and new at once as nature's self,
> To rap and knock and enter in our soul."

If there be any truth in the suggestion—and it is a question which must be answered by each for himself, it can hardly be put in a form that will equally apply to every individual—then an essential feature of the sacramental efficacy of material or external things, when spiritually regarded and transfigured in the light of a dominating faith, is admitted: for material means whereby the soul can be elevated, and brought into conscious relation with Deity, are essentially of the nature of sacraments.

"To attempt to grasp the infinite by reason," says Plo-

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tinus, "is futile; it can only be known in immediate presence. The faculty by which the mind divests itself of its personality is *Ecstacy*. In ecstacy the soul becomes loosened from its material prison separated from individual consciousness, and becomes absorbed in the Infinite Intelligence from which it emanated." This condition of inspiration, direct intuition, or enthusiasm,—some approach to what is meant by "seeing God,"—is but transitory, and may be rare, but it can be induced by a great variety of instrument. A few attain it during the contemplation of law and order enshrined in a mathematical expression, or in some comprehensive philosophic formula; but to many the transfiguring and revealing experience is heralded by the song of birds, by sunshine upon grass, by the wind in the tree-tops, or by the wild solitude of mountains. To one the vision comes during the music of an orchestra or the sight of a great work of art; to another, the atmosphere of an empty cathedral is full of it; while to another, again, the same cathedral must contain lights and incense in order effectively to act as a medium. To many the acts of common worship are an invaluable aid; while others find their fullest help towards realizing the Divine presence in the consecrated materials of a purposely arranged and specially organized Sacrament.

The means of grace last mentioned—being consciously directed to a desired end—must be considered as especially forcible and effective; at any rate for those who are constituted in such a way as to appreciate accessories and aids of this kind. But it is not to be denied that, in spite of good intention, these ecclesiastical forms and ceremonies strike another type of religious disposition as so humanly ingenious and specifically organized as to repel rather than attract divine thoughts; which with these people arise in more spontaneous fashion, amid the simplicity of almost unassisted worship in plain buildings, or among the solitudes of consecrated nature.

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## THE CLASS OF 1909.

Members of the Class of 1909 will be glad to hear that the chairman of the banner committee reports favorable progress on the class banner. The order was placed with the John Wanamaker firm of New York on the first of November and the work is being executed by their best embroiderers. Before the end of the year we may hope to publish a photograph of the banner so that all members of the class, especially those who cannot come to Chautauqua, may be able to shadow forth its appearance in their imaginations with some degree of accuracy.

A recent letter from one of the 1909's in Illinois to the class secretary may be looked upon as quite typical of the experiences of others:

Yes, I am thoroughly enjoying my Chautauqua studies and looking forward eagerly to the delights of next summer. We will be *it*, won't we? I feel so grateful to you for inducing me to join the 1909 Class. I became quite well acquainted with the members last summer. Chautauqua will be more beautiful than ever with so many new buildings.

I am deeply interested in the "European Literature." Mrs. Bishop read the story of Mateo Falcone last summer at the five o'clock reading hour, also some of Daudet's, and Mrs. Baker read "The Sunken Bell" and several from Maeterlinck. Mr. William Norman Guthrie lectured on so many of the other writers. Then we had a number of lectures on Germany and the Kaiser. I know I shall enjoy the book "Seen in Germany" when I get to it.



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PRACTICAL HELP IN THE PEACE CAUSE.

"International Conciliation" is the general title of a series of small monographs published monthly by the American Branch Association for International Conciliation. These pamphlets are distributed for the common good and Chautauqua circles may do much to extend their influence. Number 13 of this series published in December, 1908, on "European Sobriety in the Presence of the Balkan Crisis" is especially pertinent at the present time. The author, Professor Charles Austin Beard of Columbia University, shows how remarkably the attitude of Europe toward war has changed in the past fifty years. Such an article has great educational value and helps to strengthen public sentiment in the belief that reason and common sense are really mightier than the sword. Every circle can do good service by sending for a copy of this little pamphlet and after discussing it in the circle get the most widely read paper in the locality to publish it. The society states that copies will be sent free to applicants as long as the edition holds out. Address (enclosing 2-cent stamp) Association for International Conciliation, American Branch, Sub-Station 84, New York City.

THE BARONESS VON SUTTNER.

The Baroness von Suttner who received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1906, and whose notable book, "Lay Down Your Arms," is quoted in the Library Shelf this month, is a descendant of a distinguished Austrian military family, her father having been the late Count Franz von Kinsky, Field Marshal. Her famous book, which is in autobiographical form, naturally has carried with it the impression that it is the story of her own life. She explains, however, that her interest in peace was not due to distressing personal experiences, as in the case of her heroine, but that it came to her as the result of her studies, and when the idea dawned upon her she was surprised and delighted to learn that there was a Peace Society in England. She describes with some humor her first meeting with Felix Moscheles, who was at

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that time vice president of the London Peace and Arbitration Association. She and her husband were staying in Venice shortly after her book was published, when a strange gentleman presented himself and inquired for the Baroness. He was quite overcome to be greeted by her husband who, he could hardly be led to believe, had not been shot in Paris, so vividly does the book carry with it the impression of being a life history. The response to her book led the Baroness into many activities in the interest of the peace movement, among others the suggestion to Alfred Nobel that he establish the Peace prize. In recent years she has been greatly concerned at the efforts of yellow journalism to stir up war between England and Germany. She advocates a peace movement to make the peace loving millions evident to their fellow men who are now led by the war agitators, a comparatively small body yet wielding an influence out of all proportion to their numbers. Her stirring words are quoted in an article in the *Review of Reviews* for April, 1906. The present strained relations between Austria and Servia must present to the Baroness and her coworkers a peculiarly obstinate problem.

MR. GEORGE B. ZUG.

The author of our series of studies on Dutch Art and Artists, Mr. George Breed Zug, at present Assistant Professor of the History of Art in the University of Chicago, was graduated from Amherst College in 1893. His special preparation for this position has included post-graduate study in the universities of Harvard and Berlin; in the Ecole du Louvre and in the American School for Classical Studies at Rome; familiarity with the continental galleries, churches, and museums during a period of over five years, and experience as a lecturer on the History of Art in London, Paris, Florence, and in the University of Chicago. While in Europe besides pursuing studies in several universities, Mr. Zug worked with Mr. Bernhard Berenson of Florence, with Georges Lafenestre, curator of paintings in the Louvre, and other authorities of international standing.

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Connected with the University of Chicago for more than five years, Mr. Zug has not only conducted his regular university classes, but has been active as one of the University Extension lecturers of that institution.

He can be secured for courses of lectures on medieval Italian Cities: Their Architecture, Painting and Sculpture; on Painters of the Italian Renaissance; on Great Periods of Mural Decoration (which includes lectures on the Decorative Paintings of Italy, France, and America); and on Contemporary American Sculpture and Painting. The subjects for this last course are:

(1) Augustus Saint-Gaudens and Daniel Chester French; (2) The Younger Sculptors—Barnard, Borglum, MacNeil, and others; (3) Recent Mural Painting in America; (4) Winslow Homer and Other Painters of Marines; (5) Contemporary Landscape Painters; (6) Contemporary Portrait Painters; (7) LaFarge and Whistler.

Any of the lectures of the various courses may be given separately but those which have been most popular as single lectures are English and American Stained Glass, Landscape Painting as an Art, Recent Mural Painting in America, and the various lectures on Dutch Painting. Of the latter perhaps the most popular has been that on "Dutch Painters, Old and New," in which the lecturer compares the work of typical masters of the seventeenth century, with that of the Modern Dutch Painters, bringing out the growth of modernity in technique and feeling.

Professor George Breed Zug.

A NOTABLE AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

No member of the C. L. S. C. should miss the opportunity of reading the very delightful chapters from an "Autobiography" of the late Professor Nathaniel Southgate Shaler now being published in the *Atlantic Monthly*. In the February number his frank and entertaining account of Aga-

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siz's method of training him for scientific research gives one a sense of personal acquaintance with the author whose "Man and the Earth" has already captivated many of us by its human quality as well as its scientific interest.

The recent death of one of Chautauqua's very earnest and efficient workers, Mrs. A. G. Field of Des Moines, Iowa, calls attention to those qualities of intelligent leadership which have made Chautauqua a strong educational influence in many communities. From the very early days of the C. L. S. C. Des Moines has been active in promoting the ideals of Chautauqua. Not only have circles flourished in all parts of the city, but for a number of years a local Summer Chautauqua was sustained by the enthusiasm and devotion of those who saw the educational possibilities of its work. As the years have passed the influence of the older graduates of the C. L. S. C. has broadened. The Society of the Hall in the Grove and the other Chautauqua organizations have emphasized the importance of post-graduate reading and developed among graduates and undergraduates a spirit of coöperation. These activities have been maintained steadily from year to year.

The late Mrs. A. G. Field.

Now one of the most devoted of the leaders has laid down her work. The circles throughout the city have felt her loss very keenly and their estimate of her noble character has been increased by her heroic patience under the strain of a long illness which was often accompanied by intense suffering. Some weeks before her death a kindly,

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characteristic letter from her was received at the Chautauqua office. In it she referred to her love for Chautauqua and the joy with which she had served the cause. She looked forward calmly to the inevitable while she still clung to the thought of the work which had meant so much to her.

The services after her death, which were shaped in accordance with her explicit wish that her own share in promoting Chautauqua ideals should be lost sight of in the larger emphasis laid upon the work itself, included the reading of a brief address prepared under her supervision and embodying her understanding of Chautauqua's message to the world.

"MAN AND THE EARTH." TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION.

CHAPTER V.

*Query*: Is there danger of too rapid development of drainage and irrigation projects? How will too rapid development affect industrial conditions? Is there great danger of overproduction?

*Topic*: Recovery of Swamp Lands. *Scientific American*, 96:228, Mar. 16, '07; 97:390, Nov. 30, '07; *Independent*, 64:1448, June 25, '08. General References: *Scientific American* Supplement, 63:26233; *World To-day*, 13:277; 8:283.

CHAPTER VI.

*Query*: Will the Egyptians or the English get the benefit of the present operations along the Nile?

*Topic*: Irrigation in Egypt. *Scientific American*, 96:307; 97:122; July 4, 1908; *Engineering Magazine*, June, 1908.

CHAPTER VII.

*Query*: Can commercial fertilizers make good the loss of soil constituents due to cropping at a reasonable cost to the farmer?

*Topic*: The Sediments carried by Rivers and the Rate of Degradation of the Land. I. C. Russell, Rivers of North America, pp. 70-84. Chamberlin & Salisbury, Geology, vol. 1, p. 105.

References on Fertilizers: *Scientific American* Supplement, Jan. 26, '07; *Harper's*, October, 1907; also Bulletins on Fertilizers issued by the Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. Department of Agriculture (Can be obtained through your Congressman.)

CHAPTER VIII.

*Query*: Are game fish of sufficient importance as food to warrant Government protection? (See market reports in daily papers as to quantity, etc.)

*Topic*: International Fishery Investigations. *Nature*, 75:185; 75:251; 76:301.

CHAPTER IX.

*Query*: How does Civilization interfere with natural selection and the survival of the fittest? *Popular Science Monthly*, 71:69.

*Topic*: Evolution and Mutations. *Harper's Magazine*, Dec., '1908, p 115; *Science* (new series), 24:278; 25:185.

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William Ladd, whose Essays on International Peace are among the best of the early Literature upon the Subject.

The class of '89 are making plans for their Vicennial next summer. All members are invited to report to the secretary giving some account of their experiences since their decennial ten years ago and mentioning the names and addresses of other members who are still active. If they know of any members of the class who have died, it would enable the secretary to make the records more accurate if such names could be reported. Address Miss E. Louise Savage, Rochester, New York.

Note especially in the News from Readers and Circles the account of the Lynnfield Center League in Massachusetts. It is a simple workable plan which seems to have had a direct influence upon the whole community.

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Dr. Noah Worcester, one of the earliest American Advocates of International Peace.

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PRESIDENT'S GREETING TO THE CLASS OF 1912.

The Class of 1912 has added new strength to the C. L. S. C. with its fine membership and its many active circles. The president's greeting will surely meet with a response from every member, for the "Shakespeare Class" has a great reputation to sustain:

To the Class of 1912:

This thought has come to me many times since our parting last August: have all our members kept up their enthusiasm for the reading course, or have some allowed social and business interruptions to interfere with the reading hour? I am disposed to take a rosy view of the situation and say that the absence of bad news means good news, and that all have kept the resolution of last summer to steadfastly pursue the course until the last leaf of the lesson is scanned.

If praise of the course were needed I am sure we could all furnish it without hesitation. Those of us who enjoyed the personal touch of class fellowship last summer in class formation and in the first parade to the Hall of Philosophy will be cheered and encouraged to know that our membership is now in the thousands, all of whom should march through the Golden Gate in 1912, feeling that if all truth is not ours, that we are at least fitted to look upon those massive pillars that support the temple of truth and philosophy. The year is young, but the time is not long when we must conclude the present and be ready for another year's work. Our joy is the greater by the knowledge that those who plan for Chautauqua will have another season's study ready for us on time.

With best wishes and greetings for all the class,

VICTOR E. RHODES, President.

St. Louis, February 3, 1909.

An error has been detected in the White Seal memoranda on page 147 of the September CHAUTAUQUAN. Question 16 should read "What great influence did the revolution in 1830 in France have upon other parts of Europe?" It is pleasant to note that our readers are following the year's work with close attention.

NOTES.

A letter from the secretary of the Class of 1906 states that the tablet fund has been growing steadily. In an early announcement she asked all who could do so to send their contributions by December 1st, but if any have been unable to do so they may still be forwarded. The triennial meeting of the members of the Ruskin Class takes place this summer and they hope to welcome many who have never been to Chautauqua before. Any particulars regarding

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class affairs can be learned by addressing Miss Irene I. F. Roach, 261 Fourth Avenue, Lansingburg Station, Troy, New York.

One of the Pioneers who lives in Florida during the winter is lending her books and CHAUTAUQUAN to a friend who lives eighteen miles away and will graduate in the Class of 1909. This kind of help might be multiplied indefinitely and one thousand C. L. S. C. graduates be personally conducting a thousand undergraduates through the four years' course. It is only the old rule of ten times one, multiplied by one hundred. How many will try it?

A recent letter from a would-be member in Ohio asks if there is not a circle which would lend her the year's books and magazine. She lives not far from Zanesville, but with mail facilities it makes no real difference what part of the state her books come from.

## LINCOLN AND DARWIN.

One hundred years ago on the twelfth day of February "the foremost Briton and the foremost American of this century were born." What vivid associations the names of Darwin and Lincoln call up to men and women who have reached middle life. Each in his own way patiently set himself to work out his destiny. Each was misunderstood and held up to scorn yet awaited patiently and without malice for the judgment of time, and both lived to see their work in some measure appreciated. The fame of Lincoln has long since been established, but Darwin's recognition has come slowly. The bitter controversies of his early achievements in the days when science and religion were mutually antagonistic and intolerant obscured the greatness of his achievements. That the honest pursuit of truth means in the long run that "the truth shall make you free," is in no case more strikingly illustrated than in the life of Darwin. One of our leading universities has been celebrating the achievements of this great scientist by a remarkable series of lectures extending over a period of six weeks. How great the work of Darwin has been is suggested by some of the topics discussed:

"The World's Debt to Darwin," "The World of Thought Before and After the Publication of 'The Origin of Species,'" "Cosmic Evolution," "Variation and Heredity," "The Interpretation of Environment," "Darwinism and Political Science," "Human Evolution—Physical and Social," "The Influence of Darwinism on Psychology," "Evolution in Language and the Study of Language," "The Evolution of Religion."

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As the above topics suggest, the lectures are being given by professors of Zoology, Chemistry, Physics, Botany, Pathology, Psychology, Philology, Political Science, and Theology. Readers of the English Year will recall the very able article on Darwin by Professor Coulter of the University of Chicago in the December CHAUTAUQUAN for 1906. It would be very fitting for our circles to devote a special program to Darwin while the current press is discussing his work from many points of view. In a "Modern Europe" year this greatest of scientists may well claim a large place

Magazine articles worth examining are: Centennial of Lincoln and Darwin, W. R. Thayer, *North American Review*, 188:21-5, July, '08; Darwin-Wallace Celebration, *Living Age*, 258:366-8, August 8, '08; Is Darwin Played Out? *Review of Reviews*, 38:477-8; October, '08; What Darwinism is Not, A. G. Keller, *Nation*, 86: May 28, '08; Lincoln and Darwin, *World's Work*, January, 1909. See also Life and Letters of Darwin and brief Sketch with Selections in the "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature."

## OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR APRIL.

FIRST WEEK—APRIL 1-8.

In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Goethe's "Faust," Part I. "Man and the Earth," Chapter VI. The Problem of the Nile.

SECOND WEEK—APRIL 8-15.

In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Goethe's "Faust," Part II. Heine, His Life and Work. "Man and the Earth," Chapters VII and VIII. The Maintenance of the Soil, etc.

THIRD WEEK—APRIL 15-22.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Friendship of Nations. Modern Economic Forces Against War.

In the required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Maeterlinck's "The Intruder," "The Blind." "Man and the Earth," Chapter IX, Changes to come in the Human Period.

FOURTH WEEK—APRIL 22-29.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow-land," Chapter VII, Bulb Culture, Charities, Scheveningen, etc., "Dutch Art and Artists," Chapter VII. The Animal Painters, Painters of Architecture and of Still Life.

## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK—APRIL 1-8.

Papers: Character Study of Goethe; Goethe's influence in the world. (See lives of Goethe; see also the Cumulative Index for magazine articles.)

Study of Faust, Part I. A specially appointed leader should have

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charge of the lesson, assigning parts to different individuals. Dr. Deering has suggested that for the general reader the following scenes will especially repay careful reading: The Prologue in Heaven; Scene I, the opening monologue by Faust and the scene with the Earth Spirit; The Easter Promenade; Scene V, in Auerbach's cellar; Scene VII and following: The story of Margaret, omitting Scene XXII. The Circle might be divided into groups, each of which should, if possible, read at least one of the scenes indicated, noting quotations that bring out the thought of the poem.

Roll Call: Quotations from Faust.

Reports and discussions on "Man and the Earth." Chapter VI. (See Suggestions in Round Table.)

SECOND WEEK—APRIL 8-15.

Study of Faust, Part II. (See above suggestions. For Part II the following should be read, if possible: Act I, Scene 1, opening scene; Scene 2, Mephisto's paper money scheme. Scene 3, Plutus at the Carnival; Scene 7, Appearance of Paris and Helen at Court; Act II, Scene 2, The Making of Homunculus; Act III, latter part, Helen in Faust's castle; Act V, entire.)

Roll call: Quotations from Heine.

Reports and discussions on "Man and the Earth." Chapters VII and VIII. (See Suggestions in Round Table.)

Reading: Selections from Professor Shaler's Autobiography in *Atlantic Monthly* for February, 1909.

THIRD WEEK—APRIL 15-22.

Review of "The Friendship of Nations" (current article).

Reading: "European Sobriety in the Presence of the Balkan Crisis." (See paragraph in Round Table.)

Discussion of Chapter on Maeterlinck. In what respects does he suggest Poe? Is he to be compared with Goethe in any way? Would the eighteenth century have been as fitting a time for his message as the twentieth?

Reports and discussion on "Man and the Earth." Chapter IX. (See Suggestions in Round Table.)

Discussion: Two important articles relating to Germany today. See "Development and Condition of the Woman Question in Germany" in this magazine and "The Tenements of Berlin;" see *Harper's Magazine*, February, 1909.

FOURTH WEEK—APRIL 22-9.

Book Review: "The Black Tulip." Alexander Dumas.

Map Study of Dutch East Indies showing population races, etc.

Paper: How the Dutch Manage Java. (See article with this title in *Review of Reviews*, 19:170, also in "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter on "Holland Over Sea.")

Book Review: Max Havelaar by Edward Douwes Dekker. (This book is out of print but a sketch of it will be found in the Warner Library of the World's Best Literature." It had great importance in its day.)

Reading: How Holland cares for the Lepers in her Colonies. (See *Review of Reviews*, 33:492, April, 1906.)

Study and Discussion of Dutch Animal Painters of the Seventeenth Century. (See bibliography and all available pictures.)

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## THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

### FIRST WEEK.

Paper: Hugo De Vries, the famous Amsterdam botanist. (See "Mutation theory formulated by De Vries." *Review of Reviews,* 32:370-1, Sept., '05; "De Vries and His Critics," *Science,* N. S., 24:81-9, July 20, '06 "Burbank's Ideas on Scientific Horticulture" by De Vries, *Century,* 73:674-81, March, '07; see also *Nature,* 79:101-3, Nov. 26, '08.)

Readings: Selections from "On a Dutch Bulb Farm" and "Food and Flowers" in "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton.

Book Review: "The Black Tulip." Alexander Dumas

Study and Discussion of the Work of Paul Potter. (See review questions, bibliography and all available pictures.)

### SECOND WEEK.

Oral Reports: Leeuwarden and Groningen; The Friesland Cap. (See "Holland Described by Great Writers," also Amicis' "Holland and Its People.")

Reading: Amicis' Experiences at Scheveningen and on the Dunes. (See his chapter on The Hague.)

Review and Discussion of Cuyp and other artists referred to by Mr. Zug in the present chapter of Dutch Art and Artists.

Reading: From "The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland." Fromentin.

### THIRD WEEK.

Paper: Industries, Climate, Customs, etc., in the East Indies. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter XXI, encyclopedia articles on Java, etc.)

Map Study of Dutch East India, showing population, races, etc. (See references above.)

Paper: How the region is governed. (See references above, also *Review of Reviews,* 19:179, "How the Dutch Manage Java.")

Book Review: Max Havelaar. This book is difficult of access, but a review of it with selections will be found in the "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature" under the name E. Douwes Dekker.

Reading: "How Holland Cares for the Lepers in her Colonies," *Review of Reviews,* 33:492, April, '06.

### FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Music and the Theater in Holland. (See Chapter XII in "Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

Reading: Review with selections of "Hans Brinker."

Paper: Religious Life and Thought Today in Holland. (See Chapter XIX of "Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

General Review of Dutch Seventeenth Century Art. Note carefully Mr. Zug's suggestions in the last paragraph of his article in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Copies of the "Masters in Art" on Leonardo da Vinci, Fra Lippo Lippi, Giotto, Botticelli, and Raphael would give photographs which might be compared with the Dutch artists in respect to the points emphasized by Mr. Zug. A leader who has some acquaintance with Florentine as well as Dutch art could make this review very valuable.

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## REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS.

### THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER IX. MODERN ECONOMIC FORCES AGAINST WAR.

1. What would be the immediate effect of a serious modern war? 2. How would it differ from great wars of earlier times? 3. Show something of the cost of the Boer War and the Russo-Japanese War per capita. 4. How does this affect the community? 5. Show how the accumulation of wealth makes the ravages of war more disastrous than in earlier years. 6. Illustrate this further by conditions prevailing in Napoleon's time. 7. How are nations more interdependent than formerly? 8. How do the demands of a State in time of war injure capital? 9. Describe some of the commercial evils which would be the result of war. 10. How have means of transportation and communication increased since our Civil War? 11. How would personal suffering from economic disturbances be felt at the present time? 12. What would be the effect upon labor? 13. What upon the exports of the United States? 14. Why would Europe be in even worse condition than the United States? 15. What would be the general result of a few years of such conditions?

### A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND. CHAPTER VII.

1. What is the importance of the tulip industry in Holland? 2. What was the tulip mania? 3. What advantage is to result from draining the Zuider Zee? 4. Where is the Fen district and what is its character? 5. What is the general character of the penal colonies? 6. What arguments may be made for and against their extension? 7. What are Holland's three great universities? 8. What is St. Anne's Hofje? 9. What are the peculiarities of the Dutch cap? 10. Describe Scheveningen. 11. What is the character of the Dutch fishing boats? 12. What custom prevailed in the days of herring fisheries? 13. What are the attractions of Delft?

### DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS, CHAPTER VII. THE ANIMAL PAINTERS. PAINTERS OF ARCHITECTURE AND OF STILL LIFE.

1. Distinguish between the two famous groups of landscape painters. 2. How did Paul Potter secure his early training as a painter? 3. What evidence shows that his work was early known outside of Holland? 4. What are the characteristics of his picture "The Young Bull?" 5. In what respects do we feel the limitations of the artist? 6. What should be the artist's attitude toward nature? 7. What can be said of the versatility of Cuyp? 8. What seem to have been his favorite subjects? 9. What are the general facts of his career? 10. What are some of his methods of work as shown in his paintings? 11. How does Cuyp compare with Potter in his treatment of animals? 13. Compare his work with that of some other artists. 14. Describe in general the work of Wouverman. 15. What importance has van der Velde? 16. Why does "The Enraged Swan" command especial attention? 17. Who were known as the "Italianizers" and why? 18. In what respect do the artist groups recently studied occupy a position midway between the early Italians and the Moderns? 19. In what general qualities are the Dutch painters of the seventeenth century supreme? 20. Compare them with the great Florentine painters.

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SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who was Sobieski? 2. When and with what struggles were the battles of Sebastopol and Plevna associated? 3. What congress drew up "the fundamental law of Southeastern Europe?" 4. What slight change in the Balkan situation took place in 1885? 5. Who is the present ruler of Servia? 6. Of Bulgaria? 7. Of Roumania? 8. Who is Carmen Sylva?

1. Under what circumstances was Potter's painting of the "Bull" taken to Paris? 2. What famous picture of living birds by Cuyp is in the Rijks Museum? 3. Who was E. Douwes Dekker and what service did he render to his country? 4. What famous Dutch prisons are described by Dumas? 5. What are some of the leading Dutch newspapers?

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MARCH READINGS.

1. The Mexican War. Perhaps, also, the Franco-Prussian War, the war of Germany with Austria in 1866, and the British-Boer War. 2. Permanent peace established between Chile and Argentina; the peaceful solution of the Moroccan problem; the peaceful separation of Norway and Sweden.

1. The understanding among the European powers concerning the Balkan difficulty; the first and second Hague conferences. 2. The Kaiser's abrupt reopening of the Moroccan trouble. The seizure by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

1. 1573. 2. The Dutch and Spanish fleets. 3. 1642. 4. England. 5. Dutch colonization of Cape Colonv in 1651, thence over other portions of South Africa; Transvaal in 1836. 6. The Transvaal was annexed to Great Britain and the government was vested in a governor, lieutenant governor, and executive council appointed by the Crown. A legislative Assembly was created in 1905. Self government is the ultimate end of the present system.

1. A Tuscan mural painter, born 1420, died 1493. 2. Italian painter (1447-1510), pupil of Filippo Lippi. Assisted in the decoration of the Sistine Chapel. 3. Gainesborough, 1727-1788; Corot, 1796-1875; Rousseau, 1812-1867. 3. Fra Angelico (1387-1455), Fiesole and Florence; fresco and easel painter of religious subjects. Perugino (1446-1524), Umbrian school, teacher of Raphael. Fra Lippo Lippi (1402-1469), Florence; fresco painter. 4. Winslow Homer.

## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

Pendragon viewed with satisfaction a pile of blue penciled reports on the Round Table. "These," he said, "represent communications in black and white from your own and from other circles whose delegates are necessarily absent today. The variety of persons and places and conditions which they indicate is thoroughly typical of Chautauqua. You shall all have a look through the kaleidoscope before the meeting is over. First, however, an important communication needs emphasis. At the next meeting of the Round Table we shall have reports from the graduate Circles or organizations of the Society of the Hall in the Grove. There are a goodly num-

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ber of these, but not nearly so many as we ought to have. Every graduate class ought to secure the formation of a score or more of them, and once formed not one society should be allowed to die out. They are a very vital part of the whole Chautauqua movement, how important and how easily possible I think many of our graduates do not realize. We have a constitution for such societies and at the close of this meeting we will have it read. Meanwhile, let every graduate present prepare to consider this question carefully. The formation of an S. H. G. in no sense interferes with local circles. It is rather an adder element of strength. It lays emphasis upon the graduate spirit, the permanent bond between all Chautauquans and by strengthening that, the undergraduates are also stimulated. Every member of the Classes of nineteen hundred and eight and seven and six, and so on, ought to belong to an S. H. G. if there are a half dozen graduates in the community; and the members of the Dante Class should be looking forward to a like privilege and responsibility. Such a society means that there is a recognized body of members in every town who know what Chautauqua can do for people and whose business it is to consider intelligently how the work of their Alma Mater may be extended, and the name of Chautauqua continue to mean a practical ideal for every reader past and present. You will hear more of this subject between now and the next meeting. Meanwhile, read this constitution carefully and let the undergraduates help to stir up their graduate comrades. Such a society does not mean a burdensome increase of meetings, but an organization to crystallize much latent Chautauqua spirit whose influence is often lost for lack of intelligent coöperation with others."

"You'll remember," he continued, "that some time ago reference was made to a new organization in Massachusetts called the Lynnfield Center League. It seemed like a general town movement with a Chautauqua attachment. You'll be glad to hear today particulars of this very interesting development from its prime mover, Rev. H. H. Loud:

"In a sermon last April," reported the delegate, "I pointed out a local need. Our town is a quiet community twelve miles from Boston, and the possibility of developing an effective community spirit seemed to me very evident. I first thought of a church organization, the Congregational Church is the only church in the town, but instead I called a public meeting in the Town Hall in September, presented the case, secured a temporary organization and then entertained the company with a stereopticon lecture on California. For two evenings a representative group of a dozen people assembled at the parsonage and drew up by-laws for the Lynnfield Center League, which were duly adopted. We have now one hundred and sixty-three members. The literary department

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got busy first. I suggested the C. L. S. C. I'm a graduate of the class of 1905 and we enrolled an evening class of eight or nine members, but the average attendance at the semi-monthly meetings is something over twenty, some of the Chautauqua work is being done also by persons not really identified with it. Then there were some ladies who wanted to take the Bay View course, and eight or ten of them meet in the afternoon for this. There is an annual fee of twenty-five cents which entitles each member to attend the meetings of each of the three departments, Civic, Literary, and Social. At the general meeting of the League, which comes on the second Tuesday evening of each month in the Town Hall, each department makes its report and furnishes its part of the program. Thus a good many people get some idea of the work of the different departments. The last meeting of the League was a civic meeting. There was a little music and some recognition of the fact that it was Poe's birthday. Then steps were taken which promise to bring to us the electric lights from a neighboring town and also some improved railroad and telephone accommodations. The social department has provided refreshments at some of the meetings and is planning for an entertainment, the proceeds of which are to be expended in beautifying our fine common. At the public meetings of the League we have had excellent addresses or a program of music and recitations and we are to have a travel talk on Holland. Our "Official Board" includes the usual officers, and the chairmen of the several departments. Of our two vice presidents one is always to be a woman and the other the pastor of the church. We hope in time to do some good work."

The Round Table listened with eager interest to this account of a practical experiment. "It's my opinion," commented a Kentuckian, "that they have already 'done some good work.' It seems like a fine plan for some of our other small towns to try."

"These reports," said Pendragon, again referring to the letters before him, "very strikingly illustrate what wise leadership can do. Rev. Mr. Loud's account has already shown us one phase of it. Here is another from Mrs. Pugh, the president of the Arizona Federation of Women's Clubs. Let me read it to you:

Replying to your letter of inquiry, I beg to say that about thirty-eight people in Yuma are taking the Chautauqua Course, although there is no C. L. S. C. proper. There are two women's club's in Yuma, and both of them are doing the regular Chautauqua work. Both clubs belong to the Arizona Federation and to the General Federation. The Yuma Woman's Club of about twenty members is now in its fourth Chautauqua year. I was the first president of that club, and persuaded them to do the Chautauqua work. Two years ago, the club spirit so possessed our women that another club—called the Ocotillo Club—was organized. I was the first critic of that club, and persuaded them, also, to take the Chautauqua work —which they do with the addition each year of one Shakesperean play. This club has eighteen members. I have the honor to be the president of the Arizona Federation of Women's Clubs. You will be interested to know that I am a member of the "Society of the Hall in the Grove," and "went through the gates" at the Boulder, Colo., Chautauqua. I have the honor, also, to have been the organizer of the first C. L. S. C. in the state of Texas—one at Palestine

in 1882. And I have been a sort of Chautauqua missionary ever since, as I organized C. L. S. C.'s at Greenville, Texas, Calvert, Texas, and Hearne, Texas. As president of the Arizona Federation, I am encouraging the clubs everywhere to take the Chautauqua work. I am partial to the old C. L. S. C. It seems to me to give a needed variety. Our women are all pleased with it, and are doing very good work. Some of the work is assigned to different members, lesson by lesson. The literature work is each year in the hands of a "director."

"This copy of the program of the Seventh Annual Convention of the Arizona Clubs, held at Yuma, is worth your attention," added Pendragon. "You see there are many topics closely related to our work. Library extension, art in its relation to daily life, etc., and a part of the program discusses 'The value of systematic courses of reading.' Circles which find it convenient to join local federations should by all means do so. It gives them an opportunity to remind others of the place which Chautauqua can fill in the busiest of lives. Now we must hear from a new circle at Grand Island, Nebraska."

"This is our first meeting at the Round Table," said the speaker. "We number twenty and are all 1912's. Our members take a very active part in all our meetings, holding them usually in the Library rooms. We held a special 'Holland' evening at a private house one evening. Had our regular program and a very interesting debate, then a social and a Dutch lunch. But the souvenirs were Shakesperian, for we are 1912's and we wanted to emphasize our class motto and flower. This week we are to have a German evening."

"We are always glad to greet new Circles," commented a delegate from St. Louis. "We think we have passed the 'experimental' stage, as this is our fifth year. We have comfortable rooms in the Schuyler Memorial House of Christ Church Cathedral. The studies have been very interesting. Our Circle is composed almost exclusively of young business women. We have a program committee whose personnel is changed every two months. We have not one critic, but seventeen! You asked if we have 'taken hold.' I can assure you we have with both hands!"

"Chautauqua seems to get into our blood somehow," said a member from Tacoma, Washington. "I lived in Iowa many years, was a graduate of the old Manchester Circle of the Class of '82 and here I am in Tacoma with a little class of six ladies who meet at my home every Monday afternoon. Our meetings are quite informal, with no chosen leader, but we are getting a good deal of recreation as well as knowledge from our gatherings. As to age,

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two of us are in the sixties, two in the thirties, anl two in the twenties but all of the same age when we are together! We are proving Professor Reich to be mistaken when he says 'People over forty are absolutely unable to take in any novel idea, etc.!'"

"It's very encouraging to the 1912's," said a reader from Lumberton, Mississippi, "to be assured that the Chautauqua habit once acquired is sure to persist. We have nine members who are delighted with the work and we are expecting additions. Our town has never had a literary club. You can imagine that it was very much needed. Our greatest trouble is the absence of a library, but regardless of all programs, we have held fast to the idea of keeping up with the required work. We also have a French class as a feature of our program. We have simple refreshments at the close of our meetings which seem to promote a social spirit and sometimes add new points of view to our previous discussions."

"There's something peculiarly inspiring about a report like yours," said Pendragon. "Think of it—the first literary club in the town! It's a splendid thing to have it a Chautauqua Circle. You've a great future and the community will feel your influence as long as the town stands. You must talk with the delegates from Tyler, Texas, and Guthrie, Oklahoma. The Tyler people have a fine Carnegie library, but when they started many years ago no prospect could have been more hopeless. As for Guthrie, a town of many clubs, a Carnegie library and all the rest, they will tell you how the old mother club was the Chautauqua Circle. It stimlated the growth of many another, and in time, never mind how long, they all joined hands and secured their beautiful library which is a center of all good things for the town. You've made a wise start by taking your work in thorough fashion. Don't be tempted from your ideal, but find time for the full four years' course, every one of you, and you will never regret your training!"

"I think I will read you," continued Pendragon, "a few of the criticisms on our books. You will like to see what an interesting and varied folk Chautauquans are: The circle at Bloomfield, Iowa, with its fourteen members found that Reich's book provoked much discussion: 'It became a byword with us. No matter what we had previously learned of the subject treated, Reich would have a different interpretation to put on it, but we did very much enjoy the book.' Ladonia, Texas, with twelve members, half of whom are teachers, report: 'We had some very enthusiastic outbursts of patriotism during Professor Reich's bomb throwing practice. Seen in Germany is quite easy and refreshing after our hard study.' The Centerville, Tennessee, leader is enthusiastic over the wav in which their fifteen members are rising to their work: 'We were all charmed with Foundations of Modern Europe. It's one of the most delightful histories I have ever seen.' At Ripley, New York,

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they are making excellent progress: 'We do not all quite agree with the author of the book in every respect, but that only adds a little spice to our study!' A twenty-fifth anniversary is in contemplation by the circle at Jersey Shore, Pennsylvania. This announcement will be duly impressive, I trust, to our 1911's and 1912's! This circle confesses to: 'a great diversity of opinion over Emil Reich's book, but are unanimous in our interest in Seen in Germany, also the magazine articles concerning Holland, Artists, etc.'

"One circle finds the 'style' of 'Seen in Germany' unusually good, while another alludes to the fact that the book had been criticised in this very particular. A very frank report from the wide awake new circle at Thatcher, Arizona, says: 'We enjoy the work. It is the sense of the circle at present that Emil Reich is a crank. If we have occasion to, however, we can change our opinion.'

"But we must close. There are many more reports for future use. Don't fail to read and consider the Constitution of the S. H. G.:

1. Name. This organization shall be known as the C. L. S. C. Society of the Hall in the Grove.

2. Object. Its object shall be to unite all C. L. S. C. graduates in a permanent organization, which shall take a general oversight of the Chautauqua work in the community, encouraging graduates to continue habits of systematic study, aiding in the establishment of new circles and, wherever practicable, extending its influence into outlying communities. Much can be done by such an organization in lending books to isolated readers in the surrounding country, cultivating the practice of occasionally visiting circles in adjacent towns and building up a strong influence in the county.

3. Membership. Only persons holding the diploma of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle shall be eligible to membership in this society.

4. Dues. The question of dues shall be left to the discretion of each organization.

5. Officers. The officers shall be a president, vice-president, secretary and treasurer. It shall be the duty of the secretary to report at least twice a year to the Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, N. Y., giving the names of the officers of the society and a statement of the work accomplished, with any suggestions which the experience of the society may lead them to offer.

6. Representation at Chautauqua. The society shall be entitled to representation on Rally-ing day at Chautauqua. If its membership exceeds twenty-five, it will be entitled to two delegates; if it exceeds fifty, to three. Each delegate will be provided with a pass to the assembly grounds for the entire season.

7. Meetings. The society shall hold at least two meetings each year. One of these shall be of a social character, at which C. L. S. C. graduates shall be welcomed into its fellowship. One meeting shall also be devoted to the consideration of plans for the extension of Chautauqua work in the community. It is desirable that the S. H. G. keep in close connection with the undergraduate circles, encouraging them in their work, leading them to cultivate fixed habits of study and inspiring them to become graduates.

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La servistino prenas la bultason de la infano,
ŝi iras al la kuirejo,
ŝi duone plenigas la bultason per avenkaĉon,
ŝi revenigas la bultason,
kaj metas ĝin antaŭ la infanon.

The maid takes the child's bowl,
she goes to the kitchen,
she half fills the bowl with oatmeal mush,
she brings back the bowl,
and places it before the child.

La infano malkovras la sukerujon,
li metas la kovrilon sur la tablotukon,
li prenas la sukerkuleron,
li enŝovas la kuleron en la ŝukeron,
li etiras plenkuleron da sukero,
li surŝutetas la avenkaĉon per sukero,
li remetas la sukerkuleron en la sukerjon.

The child uncovers the sugar bowl,
he puts the cover on the table cloth,
he takes the sugar spoon,
he plunges the spoon into the sugar,
he takes out a spoonful of sugar,
he sprinkles his oatmeal with sugar,
he puts the spoon back into the bowl.

Li prenas la kremkruĉon,
li surverŝas iom da kremo sur la avenkaĉon,
li remetas la kremkruĉon sur la tablon,
li prenas sian kuleron,
li miksas la tuton en sia bultaso.

He takes the cream pitcher,
he pours a little cream upon his oatmeal,
he puts the pitcher back upon the table,
he takes his spoon,
he mixes the whole in his bowl.

Li prenas plenkuleron da avenkaĉo,
li portas ĝin al la buŝo,
li blovas super ĝin,
li enmetas ĝin en s'an buŝon,
li manĝas ĝin,
li daŭrigas sammaniere,
li manĝas la tutan avenkaĉon.

He takes a spoonful of oatmeal,
he carries it to his mouth,
he blows upon it,
he puts it into his mouth,
he eats it,
he keeps on in the same way,
he eats all his oatmeal.

La servistino alportas kotletojn,
ŝi ĉirkaŭiras la tablon,
ŝi haltas apud ĉiu,
ŝi prezentas la pladon al ĉiu.

The maid brings some chops,
she goes around the table,
she stops near each one,
she presents the dish to each one.

Ĉiu servas al si mem kotleton,
li spicas la kotleton per salo,
li spicas ĝin per pipro,
li prenas tranĉon da pano.

Each helps himself to a chop,
he seasons the cutlet with salt,
he seasons it with pepper,
he takes a slice of bread.

Li prenas la forkon,
li p'kas la forkon en la kotleton,
li prenas la tranĉilon,
litranĉas peceton da viando,
lo suko elgutas el la nemultkuirita viando,
kaj sin disverŝis sur la teleron.

He takes his fork,
he sticks the fork into the chop,
he takes his knife,
he cuts off a piece of meat,
the juice drips form the rare meat,
and spreads upon the plate.



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|---|---|
| Li portas la peceton da viando al la buŝo, | he carries the piece of meat to his mouth, |
| li enigas ĝin en la buŝon, | he puts it into his mouth, |
| lo rompas peceton da pano, | he breaks off a piece of bread, |
| li almetas ĝin al la viando, | he puts it with the meat, |
| li maĉas ĝin (tion), | he chews it, |
| li glutas ĝin. | he swallows it. |
| | |
| Li tranĉas alian peceton da viando, | He cuts off another piece of meat, |
| li manĝas ĝin sammaniere, | he eats it in the same way, |
| li rompas alian peceton da pano, | he breaks off another piece of bread, |
| li metas ĝin sur la teleron, | he cuts it upon his plate, |
| li pikas ĝin per la forko, | he sticks his fork into it, |
| li sobrigas ĝin per suko, | he makes it imbibe the juice, |
| li manĝas ĝin, | he eats it, |
| li daŭrigas sammaniere, | he continues in the same way, |
| li manĝas la tutan kotleton. | he eats the whole of his chop. |
| | |
| Dum li manĝas (Manĝante) | While eating |
| la infano soifas, | the child becomes thirsty, |
| li prenas la karafon, | he takes the decanter, |
| li verŝas al si trinkon, | he pours himself a drink, |
| li plenigas la glason, | he fills the glass, |
| li remetas la karafon sur la tablon, | he sets the decanter on the table, |
| li portas la glason al la lipoj, | he carries the glass to his lips, |
| li trinkas, | he drinks, |
| li sensoifigas sin. | he quenches his thirst. |
| | |
| Lia patrino verŝas iom da kafo en tason, | His mother pours a little coffee into a cup, |
| ŝimetas la kafo kruĉon sur la tablo, | she puts the coffee pot back on the table, |
| ŝi prenas la laktokruĉon, | she takes the milk pitcher, |
| ŝi aldonas grandan kvanton al la kafo, | she adds a large quantity to the coffee, |
| ĉi donas la tason al la servistino. | she gives the cup to the maid. |
| | |
| Tiu ĉi ĉirkaŭiras la tablon, | The latter goes around the table, |
| kaj metas la tason antaŭ la infanon, | and puts the cup before the child, |
| la infano rigardas la kafon, | the child looks at his coffee, |
| li malafabligas la vizaĝon | he pouts, |
| tial ke li pensas, | for he thinks |
| ke estas tro da lakto en ĝi, | that there is too much milk in it, |
| sed li silentas. | but he keeps quiet. |
| | |
| Li metas du pecetojn da sukero en la tason, | He puts two lumps of sugar in his cup, |
| li rundmovas la sukeron en la kafo | he stirs the sugar in the coffee |
| per la kulero, | with his spoon, |
| la sukero solviĝas | the sugar dissolves |
| kaj sukeras la kafon. | and sweetens the coffee. |
| | |
| Li portas plenkulereton da kafo al la buŝo, | He takes a spoonful of coffee to his lips, |
| tio ŝajnas al li maldolĉa, | this seems bitter to him, |
| li aldonas sukeron, | he adds some sugar, |
| li trinketas la kafon, | he sips his coffee, |

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li remetas la tason sur la subtason.

he puts the cup back upon the saucer.

Estas plenkorbeto da fruktoj sur la tablo,
la infano deziras manĝi iun el ili,
li volas havi nek pomon nek piron,
li deziras bananon.

There is a basket of fruit on the table,
the child wishes to eat some,
he wants neither an apple nor a pear,
he wants a banana.

Li demandas al la patrino
ĉu li povas preni unu,
ŝi jesas.

He asks his mother
whether he may take one,
she says "yes."

Li etendas la brakon,
sed li ne atentas la kremkruĉon,

lia maniko tuŝas ĝin
kaj renversas ĝin.

He extends his arm,
but he doesn't think about the cream pitcher,
his sleeve catches it
and upsets it.

La kremo diversiĝas sur la tablotuko,

la infano bedaŭeresprimas,
li diras ke li ne intencis fari tion.

The cream spreads upon the tablecloth,
the child excuses himself,
he says that he did not do it on purpose.

La servistino alproksimiĝas rapide,
ŝi viŝas la kremon per telertuko,
ŝi etendas puran buŝtukon sur la makulon
por kaŝi ĝin.

The maid approaches quickly,
she wipes up the cream with a napkin,
she spreads a clean napkin on the spot to cover it up.

La infano senŝeligas la bananon
kaj manĝas ĝin.

The child skins the banana
and eats it.

La infano estas fininta la manĝadon,
li ne estas plu malsata,
li manĝis bone,
li refaldas la buŝtukon,
metas ĝin en ĝian ringon,
kaj metas ĝin sur la tablon.

The child has finished his meal,
he is no longer hungry,
he has eaten well,
he folds his napkin,
puts it in its ring,
and puts it on the table.

Okaze li rigardas la horloĝon,
li havas multon da tempo,
sed li malpaciencas,
ĉar li deziras alveni frutempe al la lernejo
por ludi kun siaj kamaradoj
antaŭ la malfermado.

Now and then he looks at the clock,
he has plenty of time,
but he grows fidgety,
for he wishes to arrive early at the school
to play with his comrades
before the opening.

La patrino certigas al li
ke li ne bezonas rapidi tiamaniere.

His mother assures him
that he need not hurry so.

Fine la manĝado finiĝas,
ili leviĝas,
ili disigas,
kaj ĉiu atentas siajn aferojn.

At last the meal comes to an end,
they rise,
they separate,
and each one attends to his own affairs.

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# Talk About Books

THE PURE GOLD OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY LITERATURE. William Phelps of Yale University. New York: Thos. Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 40. Cloth 75c net. Limp leather $1.50 net. Postage 8c.

This is a most attractive book. It has wide margins, and its mechanical make-up will be a joy to book lovers. In the charming style of Professor Phelps there are given short descriptions of writers in poetry and prose, who have "a fixed place in the front rank" among authors of the Nineteenth Century. He names six poets as belonging to the first rank: Keats, Wordsworth, Byron, Shelley, Tennyson, and Browning. Closely following these are Coleridge and Mrs. Browning. He also mentions a few whose work will endure: Rossetti, Matthew Arnold, Scott, and possibly Swinburne. Among the masters of prose he places in the first rank: Scott, Jane Austin, Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, and Stevenson, and "to this roll of honor time will probably add the name of Thomas Hardy." Each description is short but gives clearly the strong characteristics of the writer. While the bulk of the book is devoted to poets and novelists, yet a few pages are given to writers in other fields; Thomas Carlyle, who "outside of poetry and the novel," is unquestionably "the greatest figure of the century;" Ruskin, who revealed "the beauties and glories or art;" Landor who produced some pure gold; Leigh Hunt, whose gentleness made him great; Matthew Arnold, the literary dictator; Macaulay, the rhetorician.

TALKS TO THE KING'S CHILDREN. Sylvanus Stall, D. D. Philadelphia: The Vir Publishing Co. Pp. 247. Price $1.00 net.

The book, "Five Minute Object Sermons," was so favorably welcomed that Dr. Stall was encouraged to send forth this second volume. The title of each talk is attractive and the subject matter so well illustrated that children will be delighted to read the book. The talks were prepared for children but the speaker has so tactfully woven into his stories much of valuable information that many a grown-up child will enjoy reading these short, helpful, practical, optimistic, Christian talks.

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE. Abraham Flexner. The Century Co. Pp. 237. Price $1.00 net.

This book deals with a problem of far reaching influences, the educational question, and acknowledges that there is serious thinking among educational leaders as to the wisdom of the emphasis today placed upon the function of the college. It raises such questions as these: Does the preparation for and the life in college educate? Are the students receiving a "liberal education?" Is real love of learning fostered? The old system of an enforced course of study


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has been largely replaced by the elective system. Under this newer plan it seems to be possible for one to make "a sort of gentlemanly 'grand tour' through the capitals of the chief provinces of intellectual interest," but graduate "unripe." The life of a student is followed in preparatory school and college, showing the deficiency in both and pointing the way out of the difficulty. The system of examinations, upon which a student's reputation is staked, is bitterly condemned and there is a strong plea for a larger emphasis upon thorough and efficient work in the entire school life. His words in reference to the need of better preparation in fundamentals have the right ring: "Utter waste of the earlier school years does not militate against entering college; a wise use of them does not help the candidate, whose fate is wholly dependent on literal compliance with terms that can best be met by cramming a few years just before entering college." To bring about the happy condition desired by the author he would have the entire scholastic order changed; secondary schools, which pepare the "raw material," not for examinations but for hard intellectual work; colleges, which cultivate a fondness for study and place less emphasis on rivalry for "expanding numbers;" entire divorce of college from university; less commercialism. He believes that the key to the college position is the secondary school and in that field is a splendid opportunity for some new educator.

THE UNFINISHED TASK. By James L. Barton. New York: Students' Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions. Pp. 211. Cloth, 50c; paper, 35c.

The sub-title gives in a sentence the subject matter of the book: "Introductory studies in the problem of the World's Evangelization." Dr. Barton clearly outlines the "Task," places the responsibility for undertaking it upon the church, names the available resources and calls upon the Christian church to finish the "Task." The casual student has but small conception of the extent of the need of the gospel; the writer says that about 1,200,000,000 are yet to be reached by missionary effort and working among this immense body of people are about 17,000 workers. But what are they among so many? This book is designed as a text-book and is so arranged as to give easy lessons for study. Like all publications of the Student Volunteer Movement this book designs to give a larger vision of the world's need of the true religion and to emphasize that the conversion of the heathen world depends, not upon emotional waves of excitement but upon common sense planning, large liberality, vital interest, and intense activity.

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# The Chautauquan

The Family of Nations at The Hague

Quaint Customs and Manners in Holland

Israels and Mesdag—Modern Dutch Artists

Versailles and the Trianons

The Future of War

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Alone in the World. By Joseph Israels. In the Mesdag Museum, The Hague.
(See "Dutch Art and Artists," page 224.)

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN
Vol. 54. APRIL, 1909. No. 2.

THANKS to the financial aid of the Russell Sage Foundation a committee of the Charities Publication Society, composed of distinguished men and women engaged in relief, settlement, and reform work, was able to undertake a "social survey" of Pittsburg, the iron city, the most extraordinary, in many respects, of our industrial communities. The survey was made on scientific lines, and engineers, sanitarians, physicians, charity experts were on the force which for eighteen months was employed in the enterprise. The object was to determine the conditions of life and labor in a heterogeneous American city, to point out possible improvements and discover unsupplied needs.

The investigation was thorough, embracing housing, wages, hours of toil, cost of living, police and hospital service, industrial accidents, pauperism, sickness and death rates, education, immigration, justice in the inferior courts, saloons, politics, charitable and other philanthropic agencies, and so on. Many startling results were brought to light in the reports of the investigators. It was known before that Pittsburg, so wealthy and alert and busy, was in a civic and social sense far behind other American cities, but few outsiders had any conception of the actual conditions there. Some of the things found by the surveyors were thus summarized in a circular issued by the directing committee:

1. In the Schools. Buildings, every room of which was overcrowded, with children sitting in the aisles; schools unconnected with the sewer; schools without fire proofing, without fire escapes, without fire drills—all these in contrast to progressive schools in other wards with first rate equipment, small classes, good plumbing and adequate light.

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2. In the Hospital System. The city is served by a group of private institutions, many of them adequately equipped and progressively managed, but there is no co-ordination. New hospitals are erected under the eaves of the old hospitals. Sick and injured people are carried long distances at great risk. Seven new hospitals are going up in Pittsburg and yet, when they are carried out, there will be a great belt of river wards thickly populated without a convenient hospital plant.

3. The Aldermans Courts are of the vintage of the village blacksmith. With the exception of a few well conducted courts, the forty or more ward courts may be said to clutter up and befog the cause of minor justice, and are an exasperation in civil business. They compare with the new Municipal Court of Chicago about as the open forges of King John's time compare with the Bessemer converter.

4. Factory Inspection Headquarters are conspicuous by their absence in this, perhaps the greatest industrial center in the country, where thousands of men are at work, dealing with poisons and flame, and fierce new agents of production. There are factory inspectors, but they are not easily accessible to the workman. The standards for protective machinery are low and are not adequately enforced.

5. The Health Bureau, until the present administration, had not had an annual report for five years. Two-thirds of the appropriation is engrossed in a garbage removal contract. With such an inadequate barricade, disease has sacked Pittsburg throughout the years. With a new five and a half million dollar filtration plant, the city is checking its typhoid scourge, but compared with four cities of corresponding size—Boston, Baltimore, Cleveland, St. Louis—Pittsburg has ranked highest in typhoid and pneumonia for five years.

6. The cost of living in the neighborhood of Pittsburg is well nigh the highest in the country. There is a direct bearing between this cost of living and the holding power of the wages paid in the Pittsburg district.

7. Housing. The tenement house census of last summer showed 3,364 tenement houses in the greater city. Nearly 50 per cent. of these are old dwellings without conveniences for the multiple households now crowded into them. Cellar dwellings, dark interior rooms, filthy vaults, water taps each used by ten or more families—these were some of the things found. Such haphazard method of letting housing take care of itself is a monetary drawback to the merchants of the city. It puts a premium on single men, drifters and lodgers as against the man with a household.

8. In the Mill Town. This problem is not of the greater city alone. In Braddock, Duquesne, McKeesport, Sharpsburg, and Homestead, there are old buildings which are crowded, and new buildings which are put up in violation of every canon of scientific housing—back-to-back houses such as were condemned seventy-five years ago in England.

9. In the gamble for health, in these communities, the dice are loaded. In the second ward of Homestead, of every three children born one dies before it reaches two years of age, as against one dying of every six born in the rest of the town.

10. The Human Waste of Industrial Accidents. During the year studied, 500 were killed; over half were thirty years of age, Over half were earning less than $15 a week. Is the law fair in

assuming that wages cover risk? Fifty-one per cent. of the men killed were married and had families to support. Where does the expense of these accidents fall? What share of the loss is shouldered by the employer? What share falls in the long run upon the community itself?

11. Industry and Health. The United States Supreme Court in an Oregon case has upheld the constitutionality of the statute prohibiting night labor for women on grounds of health. From mid-August to the first of December in the stogy trade of Pittsburg women work from two to three evenings a week; laundries customarily work Friday nights until 10 or 12 o'clock, and ironers sometimes work until 3 a. m.

12. Democracy and Free Time. Employers may differ as to whether they can get the most work and the most effective work out of a man if he works twelve hours a day, or ten, or eight, but the community has something at stake. How much citizenship does Pittsburg get out of the steel worker who labors twelve hours a day, seven days a week, with a long turn of twenty-four hours once a fortnight?

Pittsburg, it will be seen, has tremendous social and industrial problems to grapple with, and the work of reconstruction will require decades and an abundance of civic virtue and energy.

Washington, the national capital, is a city of a different class, but she too has been backward and needs a thorough cleaning up and reconstruction. A commission appointed by President Roosevelt made an elaborate investigation and reported some time ago a sweeping plan of reform. The city can be made a model of its kind, and being our capital, the duty to reconstruct it is the more imperative. It has many magnificent buildings, fine monuments, broad avenues and beautiful features, but it also has filthy alleys, congested and ugly tenements unfit for human habitation, vicious dens and ill-paved, ill-lighted streets.

Morally Washington also leaves much to be desired. Gamblers, loan sharks, usurers flourish there, and the people are governed by a commission that in turn is subject to congressional control and have no means of attending to their own needs. Political, economic, sanitary and other improvements are as necessary to Washington as they are to Pittsburg, and in the former city the contrasts are greater and less explicable to visitors and foreigners.

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## Further Progress of Prohibition

We directed attention some months ago to the extraordinary advance of prohibition in the South. Further victories for that cause are to be recorded. On the first day of the present year state prohibition laws—as distinguished from county prohibition under the system of local option—went into effect in three southern commonwealths—Alabama, Mississippi, and North Carolina. Georgia had joined the prohibition states a year before. Tennessee, after a severe struggle in the legislature, has since enacted a state prohibition act. Arkansas, South Carolina, and Texas are pledged to prohibition and will soon establish it by legislation. Oklahoma has had prohibition since statehood was conferred upon her. Will the South soon be "solid" on this question? it is naturally asked.

Not long ago prohibition was supposed to be a northern movement. It was confined, as far as state law was concerned, to Maine, Kansas, and North Dakota. Today it is spreading faster in the South than in the North, though more and more northern counties and cities are voting out the saloons on their own account.

In southern cities—Atlanta especially—there has been resistance to the enforcement of prohibition and instances of defiant violations. But the so-called "whiskey rebellions" of our day are not formidable. Forceful executives will find public sentiment on their side in demanding respect for law, and prohibition will be fairly tried in the industrial cities of the South. That there should be such a trial must be the wish of the sincere and disinterested opponents of prohibition as well as of its supporters, for ultimately facts rather than doctrines will settle the question.

Among the better class of wholesale liquor dealers and brewers there is, as we have noted before, a movement for reforming the retail trade and making the saloon respectable and law-abiding, as it is in Germany, for example. The Model License League would divorce the saloon from gambling, the social evil, vice and disorder in all its forms, would

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discourage "treating" as a cause of overindulgence, and would have violations of ordinances regulating saloons punished by fine or cancellation of the license. The resolutions of this league are eliciting commendation from the press and public men, but doubt is expressed whether they will have much influence on the class they are aimed at, which includes the low type of spoils politician as well as the law-breaking retail dealer and the corrupt official who "protects" him for a political or pecuniary consideration.

### Reformed Spelling Again

It cannot be said that the efforts to correct, rationalize and simplify English spellings are meeting with much popular success. Even Mr. Roosevelt's "experimental" order in favor of the proposed changes failed of the expected effect. A few periodicals have permanently adopted the spellings recommended by the Simplified Spelling Board, but their number is not increasing, while their readers, whether accustomed to the new forms or not, are not demanding that the other publications they buy and like shall adopt the reformed spellings.

But the learned members of the American and English boards are persistent and optimistic. They have issued a new list of reformed words and promise a complete "alfabetical" guide for those who sympathize with the movement. Apparently no further or more "radical" changes are to be made in the near future; the public will be given time and opportunity to acquire familiarity with and overcome the repugnance naturally felt to the new reform.

The latest list, the third in the series since the launching of the linguistic enterprise, seems startling to many and absolutely reasonable and moderate to the board and its supporters. It invites us to drop the "a" in such words as "helth," "relm," etc., the "e" in such words as "hart," "harth," the final "e" in delv, solv, etc., and the "ce" in notis, servis, and so on.

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Science, the best original usage of great writers, the essential rules of English spelling, it is asserted and shown, fully warrant such changes. For every innovation some authority of unquestioned weight is cited and ample precedent invoked. But the difficulty appears to be that the great majority of people, including men of letters and culture, prefer the old forms, whatever their origin was, to "queer" and strange new forms. Familiarity does not always breed contempt; often it breeds affection, sympathy, devotion. The English that is learned in school, in books, in classics, the spelling that is associated with the very significance and spirit of words, lines and pregnant phrases, cannot be abandoned without violence to sentiments and habits. That is why reform by decree, reform in the name of ancient rules, is so slow and painful. Our spellings are not fixed and they will change in the future as they have changed in the past, but they will change imperceptibly, almost unconsciously. This, however, is no argument against honest, well-considered, well-informed proposals by recognized lovers of pure and correct English. Such recommendations are valuable as guidance and suggestion and may help the evolutionary process in language.

### The "Popularization" of the Senate

For some decades the federal senate has been considered too conservative, altogether insufficiently responsive to public sentiment. The constitution intended it to be deliberative and slower than the House, but it is accused of having erred too much on the side of resistance to the people's will. Direct popular election of its members is the remedy that is steadily gaining wider acceptance, though the realization of that reform seems quite remote even now.

Still, the popularization of the senate is gradually being accomplished. The waves and agitations of the last several years have had their effect on the citadel. The advisory primary votes and the other extra-constitutional devices that have been adopted in the South and West to influence the

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selection of federal senators by the legislatures have caused the retirement of some prominent men and the strengthening of the progressive or radical minority in the "upper" branch of Congress. Iowa, Kansas, the Dakotas, Washington, Oregon, New York are among the states that have sent new men to the senate, men from whom much is expected in the way of coöperation with the "progressive-conservative" executive, Mr. Taft. Ex-Secretary Root, it is true, holds conservative ideas on certain current questions, such as direct primaries, the referendum, popular election of senators, and the like; but he is an able and forceful man, with an admirable administrative record, and he will not withhold his aid from the President whose intimate associate he was in the Roosevelt cabinet. Messrs. Cummins, Jones and other newcomers are associated with the national reform movement.

The case of Senator Chamberlain of Oregon is peculiar and remarkable. He was elected by a Republican legislature, against partisan protests, and is the direct product of the "mandatory" direct primary applied to senators. The people of Oregon had indorsed him at such a mandatory primary, and the majority of the legislators had expressly pledged themselves in advance to abide by the people's verdict in the case. Some of the legislators would have violated their pledges, and they were indeed openly urged to do so by narrow "organization" men. What averted this moral offence was the "recall" system in effect in the state. A nonpartisan body of citizens announced that the recall would be used against every legislator who should dare break his pledge to the voters. The warning was effective, and not one man violated his promise, though many expressed keen regret at being forced to send a Democrat to Washington to represent the Republican majority of Oregon. The performance was childish, but it illustrates the need of popular vigilance and of more binding and effective methods of insuring genuine obedience to the popular will. Direct methods are preferable to indirect; and since the tendency unmistakably is toward popular selection of federal sena-

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tors the difficulties and dangers of such makeshifts as advisory primaries, moral promises by legislative candidates, etc., supply fresh arguments for a constitutional amendment for popular election of such senators without any intervention of state legislatures. The advantage to the latter would be great; it would give them greater freedom of action in state matters, which are all outside party politics, and permit voters to apply to their members tests of personal fitness and ability. The duty of selecting federal senators is the only thing that keeps state legislatures and state elections in "national politics."

### The New National Administration

Few American executives have had such auspicious beginnings as have marked the opening of Mr. Taft's presidential career. The last months of the Roosevelt "regime" were unfortunately months of friction between the White House and Congress, months of congressional inaction and neglect of public business. Censure of the President, a vote in the House of Representatives to lay on the table a part of one of his messages as being "disrespectful" to the House, resolutions to investigate presidential acts—such things, be their merits what they may, are not conducive to legislation and deliberation in the interest of the people.

Mr. Taft was inaugurated in an atmosphere charged with good will, so to speak. The South vied with the North and the West with the East in singing his praises. He is going to be a progressive executive; he is pledged to continue what was essential and ripe in the policies of the Roosevelt era, but his temperament is such that his methods are necessarily to be different from those of his immediate predecessor. He is persuasive, conciliatory, tactful, deliberate.

He has "conquered" Georgia and the South by his speeches and personal contact with all sorts and conditions of men in that section during his stay there. He promised the South absolutely fit appointments and high standards in

filling vacancies in public offices, and he argued that the South was deeply interested in all the legislation favored by the progressive men of all parties in the North. But he was frank enough to say that he disapproved of attempts to disfranchise the black men by discriminatory and unequal statutes or devices—like the "grandfather clause," for example. He believes in educational and moral qualifications for voting, but they must be uniform and fair to all races. While the South insists on dealing with suffrage in its own way, and the final judge of the legality of any particular law is the federal Supreme Court, much in the question of negro suffrage involves considerations of national policy, and President Taft, on such aspects, has expressed himself unmistakably in favor of justice and equality.

But the great and immediate questions that confront his administration have to do with tariff-making, revenue, railroad regulation and further control of interstate corporations. The President is a firm believer in moderate protection, protection without oppression of consumers, of shelter to grasping monopoly, and he has approved the proposal of the liberal element among manufacturing interests that a permanent commission be created by Congress to investigate conditions of production at home and abroad, discover differences in actual labor cost, determine what rates are sufficient and reasonable in the various lines of production, and recommend changes in the tariff law to the national government. This is the European method and it is the method that supplies trustworthy data to serve as a basis for a "scientific" tariff. The suggestion that the power to order or make changes in the tariff be conferred on a commission, as the power to make railroad rates under certain restrictions is now lodged in the interestate commerce commission, does not recommend itself to Mr. Taft.

The President believes in control of the capitalization of railroads and would have legislation regulating the issuance of new securities by them in order to prevent inflation and misuse of railroad credit. He believes in amending and

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modernizing the trust law so as to render it enforceable against all injurious combinations while removing the menace of prosecution from combinations that pursue legitimate purposes and actually benefit consumers and stockholders alike. On labor, employers' liability and similar questions President Taft holds views that are identical with those of his predecessor.

The opponents of regulation who have been clamoring for a "rest" from agitation and reform legislation are beginning to realize that the Taft "era" will not be a period of stagnation. The movement for conservation of popular rights and protection of popular interests is a movement that cannot be arrested. The "let alone" policy as regards public utilities is dead; monopoly will continue to be resisted and corporations must accept an increasing measure of public regulation. Here and there unwise and unjust statutes may be proposed or passed, but the courts and public opinion will gradually establish a body of principles and standards of regulation that will prevent blunders and make uniform, just regulation much less difficult than it is now, in the stress and confusion of the first phases of the great struggle.



### The Future of Cuba

Since the American provisional government of intervention came to an end in Cuba, and power was transferred to President Gomez and the new congress, reports of trouble and friction at Havana have been frequent. But Mr. Magoon, the former governor, warns Americans to receive all such reports with reserve and suspicion. There are several political factions in Cuba; the Liberal party, which is now in office, is divided against itself, and dissatisfaction over patronage and appointments will inevitably arise. It arises in this country, and often leads to scandals, deadlocks, party crises, etc. It does not follow, however, that a people is unfit for self-government if its politicians and leaders

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quarrel over spoils and public measures. Cuba's independence is not threatened by minor troubles or squabbles.

Ex-Gov. Magoon is convinced that President Gomez is equal to his task and that peace and order will be maintained in Cuba. His experience satisfies him that the lessons of the anti-Palma insurrection, the intervention and the subsequent developments have been mastered by the majority of the islanders, and that they are prepared to submit to lawfully established authority and to majority rule. A revolt against the Gomez government would be a revolt against the very principle of representative institutions, as nothing can be said against the legality and fairness of the election which resulted in the success of the party he represents.

Aside from this, Cuba is in a better position today to maintain an independent government. The period of American rule was a period of active constructive work in many directions. The island is more prosperous, healthier, cleaner, more orderly, better policed and better educated. Good laws have been adopted, crime has been suppressed, the administrative machinery has been greatly improved.

Such danger as still exists arises, as Mr. Magoon has pointed out in an otherwise highly optimistic report, from the peculiar industrial conditions of Cuba. Labor is not steadily employed; months of intense activity are followed by months of idleness, and the idle laborers, largely foreign and unskilled, easily become a menace. They turn to vagrancy, to political plotting, to anything that promises pay and excitement, and ambitious leaders have found recruits among them for the Spanish-American variety of "revolutions." Diversified industries, increased production, steady employment are Cuba's fundamental need; they would do more for her independence and future progress than any amount of political education. The Cuban government understands the situation and will seek to promote reciprocity, find markets, stimulate investment of capital in new industries, and watch the unemployed. To maintain credit it must avoid fresh loans and practice economy.

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## Trusts and Their Debts

It is a familiar rule of law that illegal or immoral contracts are unenforceable, or that the courts will not lend their aid to the effort to reap the fruit of any agreement that is contrary to public policy. Gambling debts, for example, cannot be sued on under this rule. But that trusts and combinations in restraint of trade, such as are forbidden by federal and state laws, are without standing in court to collect their debts or enforce their contracts with jobbers, dealers and other customers is a startling proposition indeed, owing to the number of such combinations and the apparent impossibility of restoring competition in the industries that have undergone concentration.

The federal Supreme Court in a recent case has decided that, whatever may be the right of illegal trusts that sue on implied promises to pay for goods purchased of them, or on express contracts that are innocent on their face, such trusts cannot secure the aid of the courts in collecting debts under agreements that are themselves tainted with illegality, or agreements that constitute part of forbidden, unlawful and anti-social purposes. To enforce such agreements, in the opinion of the court, would be to stultify the law and sanction effectually what the statutes prohibit on paper.

Four of the justices of the court dissented from this opinion, limited and guarded as it is. They admit the wisdom of the policy of resisting monopoly and withholding judicial aid from law-violating and law-defying combinations, but, in the words of Justice Holmes, even more important is "the policy of preventing people from getting other people's goods for nothing when they purport to be buying them."

A dilemma would seem to be presented to the courts. Dishonesty and fraud are bad for society, and illegal monopoly is also a bad thing. Which should be regarded as the lesser evil? The majority of the Supreme Court, without going beyond the facts of the case before it, decided that where contracts were directly tainted with illegality and

manifestly related to unlawful purposes it was best to refuse to enforce them. Where trusts sue on mere contract to pay for goods bought of them the courts may not inquire into the facts that are back of the contract, into the methods and organization of the plaintiff or the degree of participation by the defendant in the possibly illegal acts of the former. As thus understood the decision is not alarming from the standpoint of either of the trusts and their allies or from that of the commercial world generally, which naturally fears the effect of tendencies that are inimical to credit and the discharge of "honorable" obligations.

## NOTE AND COMMENT.

On February 18 representatives of Canada, Mexico, and the United States met in the White House to discuss plans for conserving the national resources of North America. This meeting for a common purpose is expected to aid in the solution of conservation problems which are international rather than national in their scope. That community of interest should exist in the preservation of water supply which benefits two nations, of forests which are the means of conserving such water supply, and of migratory game and game birds, will be readily appreciated.

President Roosevelt in welcoming the delegates, said:

"As a rule the most prosperous man is the man who lives in a prosperous community. It is just so with us as nations.

"The movement that you gentlemen are beginning, of national coöperation for the conservation of national and international resources, marks another stage in the advance along these lines."

"Canada," said Commissioner Sydney Fisher, the next speaker, "has watched with the closest attention the conservation movement in the United States." He then declared that President Roosevelt struck the keynote of high constructive statesmanship when he spoke in favor of harmonious coöperation of all countries for the advancement of all.

At the conclusion of the conference the President expressed the hope that a conservation congress in which all nations should participate would become a reality in the near future.

* * * *

The *New York Evening Post* in a recent editorial commented upon the future of Germany as a colonial power and the necessity of expansion. Within an area smaller than that of the State of Texas, Germany supports a population of 63,000,000 people which, at the present rate of increase, will, in forty years, number 100,000,000. There seems to be no possibility of expansion within Europe itself, for Russia no longer welcomes German immigrants of whom she already possesses 2,000,000, and Austria, although containing a like number, seems to be less and less influenced by the German speaking element.

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Abroad German expansion is again limited. Several millions of Germans have become American citizens and their amalgamation with other American elements is so rapid that they soon cease to have any important relation with the Fatherland. The same condition prevails in Canada. In South America although there are considerable colonies of Germans immigration has almost ceased. There remains the possibility of expansion in Asia and Africa, but here again the German refuses to leave home. Few colonists will settle in China and the German speaking population in German's vast African possessions numbers only 4,000. The country is unsuited to the German settler and despite the efforts of the government remains unpopular. Germany's problem in the next fifty years will, therefore, become increasingly pressing and in view of her political isolation her course of action in the face of economic problems will become doubly interesting to all other nations.

* * * *

Under the heading "A Simple Synopsis," *The Bookman* for February says:

"We have received a pamphlet containing an address by Professor John W. Burgess (exchange professor from Columbia at Berlin) on the subject of the German Kaiser. We had some intention of giving to our readers a synopsis of its contents, but the effort necessary to do so has been spared us. We find an adequate summary of the address in a sentence taken from the Prayer Book. By merely inserting the Kaiser's name, it adequately covers the entire ground:

"'To thee, Wilhelm, be ascribed as are most justly due, all might, majesty, dominion and power, world without end.'

"It is a very interesting pamphlet. Specialists in mental bacteriology can find no better field wherein to study the ravages of the Kaiserbacillus."

* * * *

The Library of Congress has issued a List of References on International Arbitration. The purpose of this list is to exhibit material dealing with International Arbitration, and particularly with the Conferences at the Hague. The two questions, the Limitation of armaments, and the Collection of foreign debts, having received special attention at the Hague Conference in 1907, material dealing with these two topics is likewise given under separate heads. In addition there are listed references to discussions on the French occupation of Mexico, on the Venezuela case, and on the Santo Domingo question. The list covers 151 pages and contains an index. The Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, has copies for sale. Price 20 cents, paper.

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The French flag is no longer insulted on canvas on the walls of the Reichstag at Berlin. The picture which hung behind the president's chair represented a scene after the battle of Sedan, showing the Emperor, William I the Crown Prince, Bismarck and Moltke riding over the battlefield, with the French flag under their horses' feet.

French visitors to Berlin protested against the picture and most Germans regarded it as a violation of good taste, so the offending canvas has been removed.

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# The Family of Nations In Conference at the Hague*

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ON the Western coast of Europe, within a single night's or a twenty-four hours' journey from most of the European capitals, and readily accessible by sea from the countries of the Orient and the Occident, lies the beautiful city of The Hague. The political center of the Netherlands, whose population is nineteenth in the family of nations, and with a population of its own which makes it the one hundred and second of the world's cities, The Hague was deemed to be free from many of the social and political influences which dominate the important cities of the "great powers." For these reasons, and because of its comforts, cleanliness, beauty, and good government, The Hague was selected by Russia and accepted by the other nations as the meeting-place of the two most important international gatherings in the world's history.

The fact, too, that Hugo Grotius, the father of international law, was a native of the Netherlands and spent a

*The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN; the second article, by the same author, "Danger Points Around the Globe," in the October number. In November, "The Story of the Peace Movement," by Benjamin F. Trueblood; December, "Armies the Real Promoters of Peace," by Col. W. C. Church; January, "The Human Harvest," by David Starr Jordan; and "International Aspects of Socialism," by A. M. Simons; February, "What is International Law?" by Henry Wade Rogers; and "The Sanction of International Law," by Elihu Root; March, "Modern Economic Forces Against War," by Charles A. Conant.

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large part of his life in The Hague, was regarded as another and peculiarly appropriate reason why that city should become the scene of what was to be the most important development, during the two and a half centuries since his death, in the science which he founded. This last fact was acknowledged in a striking way by America's delegation to the first Hague Conference, when through its chairman, Ambassador Andrew D. White, it laid a silver wreath upon Grotius' grave and eulogized his immortal services in behalf of international law.

Within this "capital of the world" there stand two ancient buildings, and a third new one is being erected, which will be known in history as the world's first capitols. The royal palace known as "The House in the Woods," which stands within The Hague's marvelously beautiful remnant of the forest primeval, was the meeting-place of the Conference of 1889 The castle known as "The Hall of the Knights," which stands within the city's fortress, which used to ring with the wassail of the Counts of Holland and their followers when they hunted over the neighboring North Sea marshes, and which now serves as the meeting-place of the two houses of Holland's parliament when in joint session, was the home of the Conference of 1907. A generous citizen of the new world, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, has presented to the nations the third of these buildings, which is already known as the "Palace of Peace." Its cornerstone was laid by the second conference, and it is now being built at the point where the great avenue known as the Scheveningen Way enters The Hague.

This last named building will doubtless be the center of the third conference and will become the permanent "capitol of the world." In it will meet international commissions of inquiry, the Permanent Court and tribunals of arbitration, the International Prize Court, and the Court of Arbitral Justice, all of which have been established or provided for by the first two conferences. Here, too, will be located the International Bureau, which is a permanent body of officials always ready to arrange for the details of any measure of

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Knights' Hall, The Hague, Home of the Second Peace Conference, 1907.

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The Palace of Peace, Given by Andrew Carnegie, in Process of Construction, The Hague.

House in the Wood, The Hague, Meeting Place of First Peace Conference.

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Interior of Knights' Hall, The Hague, Meeting Place of the Second Peace Conference.

Peace Hall, The Hague, Meeting Place of the Second Peace Conference.

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Peace Monument, Munich.

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international arbitration decided upon by the nations; and in it will meet the Permanent Administrative Council, composed of the ambassadors and ministers accredited to the Netherlands government by the other governments, and exercising supervisory control over the International Bureau. In the archives of the Peace Palace will be preserved all the manifold documents and records of the conference and of the various agencies mentioned above; in them, too, will be found copies of the treaties of arbitration—already very numerous—made between separate nations, and the records of peaceful solutions of their difficulties which are arrived at elsewhere than at the Hague tribunals. In its library will be gathered a vast and precious collection of treatises in every civilized tongue on every phase of international law and procedure; and here, too, will be established a school of international law, open to the students of every land, taught by the most eminent of international jurists, and aiding greatly, if merely through the mutual acquaintance of every "kindred, tongue and nation," in the promotion of international peace.

The movement which culminated in the holding of the two great International Conferences at The Hague dates from about a century ago, is of almost world-wide scope, includes many phases of political, economic, and philanthropic character. But the immediate cause of the summoning of the conferences was the realization by the Russian Czar and his ministers of the enormous financial burden which the armaments of Europe had placed upon the shoulders of the taxpayers during the past generation. Together with this realization came an earnest endeavor on the part of the Interparliamentary Union to bring about the holding of the International Conferences to deal with the problem. This union is a very influential association, its members comprising many of the delegates elected by the various peoples to represent them in the Congresses and Parliaments of the civilized world. Its object is to promote the spirit of peace and friendliness among all the lawmakers of the world and, by holding its meetings in each of the

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countries in turn, to arouse among the peoples themselves a genuine love of international peace. The meeting which it held in 1896 in Buda-Pesth, Hungary, so greatly impressed one of the Czar's ministers, M. Basily, that he began to advocate in Russia the reduction of armaments and the calling of an International Conference. At the session of the Union in St. Louis in 1904, Mr. Richard Bartholdt, member of Congress from Missouri and founder of the American group of the Interparliamentary Union, proposed a resolution requesting the governments of all the world to send delegates to a second International Conference. The Union adopted this resolution unanimously and sent a deputation of two hundred of its members to Washington to request President Roosevelt to convoke the Conference. The President received the deputation most cordially, and promised to comply with their request. But the Russo-Japanese war was waging at the time, and the great powers did not think that the right moment for the holding of the conference had arrived. When the war had been ended by the Treaty of Portsmouth, N. H., in September, 1905, the Czar instructed his ambassador in Washington to communicate to the President his desire to convoke a second Conference at The Hague, and to inquire if the President would be willing to relinquish the honor of calling it to the Czar who had summoned the first. President Roosevelt expressed himself as delighted with this arrangement, and after the necessary diplomatic correspondence, the Russian government issued its invitation to the nations and its program of topics.

The question as to which governments should be invited to send representatives to the Conference had considerable political importance in several cases; for in answering it there was danger that an invitation to some small powers which claimed complete sovereignty for themselves would irreparably offend the great powers which claimed rights of sovereignty over them. The Russian government answered this delicate question by determining to invite only those governments which were represented by diplomatic agents at St. Petersburg. As a result of this decision,

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twenty-six of the world's fifty-nine governments claiming independent sovereignty were represented at the first Conference. Twenty of these were European, four were Asiatic, and two were American.

The only European powers not represented were the principality of Monaco, the republic of San Marino, and the Roman Papacy. Of Asia's nine powers claiming independent sovereignty, China, Japan, Persia, and Siam were represented. The other five, as well as the great populations under the domination of some other power, were not invited. Africa sent no representative from her six powers claiming sovereignty, since, for various reasons, none of them were invited to do so. This omission was widely commented upon in the case of the South African Republic and the Orange Free State, both of which have since been incorporated in the British Empire. Of America's twenty-one republics only two, the United States and Mexico, sent representatives. Two of the others were invited to do so, but Brazil replied that it had no permanent army worth mentioning, and it was not publicly stated which of the other republics was invited or why it declined to be represented.

The delegates numbered just one hundred, some of these being technical or scientific experts, while the majority were diplomatists, statesmen, and publicists. From one to eight delegates were sent by each government, but each delegation, large or small, and representing a weak or a strong power, had only one vote. This recognition of the autonomy and equality of states is an interesting illustration of state sovereignty and international democracy. As in all international assemblies, however, in spite of the theory of international equality, the influence of the great powers and of great personalities was a striking fact. In arranging the seats of the delegations the alphabetical list of the countries, according to their names in the French language, was followed, and this arrangement brought all of the great powers to the front,—the Russians, as initiators of the Conference, being seated around the President, who was also a Russian. The French name for the United States (*Etats*

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*Unis d'Amérique*) would have placed its representatives seventh on the list; but, either because this arrangement would have seated its delegates next to those of Spain (*Espagne*), with whom it had recently been at war, or because of its commanding position in the New World, it was classed as *Amérique*, second in the list and just after Germany (*Allemagne*).

The absence from the first Conference of the delegates from the Republics of South and Central America was regretted for various reasons by the United States and Mexico upon whom devolved the duty of defending the peculiar interests of the New World, while the Latin Republics themselves soon found that questions in which they were gravely interested had been discussed at the first Conference and were to be discussed at the second. Partly because of these facts, and partly in recognition of President Roosevelt's aid in convoking the second Conference, as well as of the desirability that all independent nations should subscribe to the work of 1899 and participate in the discussions of 1907, it was decided that to the second Conference all of the Latin Republics should be invited. This increased the American governments at the Conference from two to nineteen. The other two, Honduras and Costa Rica, were also invited, and they appointed delegates, who came to The Hague but did not take their seats. Two seats were reserved for the delegates of Honduras, but apparently because of the difficulty of deciding at the time that the appointees represented a *de facto* government, its delegates were not seated; while Costa Rica was not named on the official list of the countries represented and no seat was reserved for its delegate. The large addition to the American ranks had very important consequences to the work of the second Conference, and at its second session the delegates of the Latin Republics of the New World gave in their adherence to the acts of the Conference of 1899. Africa remained unrepresented as before. Asia was represented by the same governments as in 1899, and a determined but unsuccessful effort for admission on the part of Korea was followed by

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its practical absorption by Japan. The twenty governments of Europe were represented as before, with the addition of Norway, which had recently separated wholly from Sweden. Of the world's fifty-seven powers claiming sovereignty in 1907, forty-four sent delegates to the Conference of that year, and an even larger proportion of the population and resources of the world were represented in it, because of the fact that the forty-four governments represented control the resources and preside over the political destinies of more than four-fifths of the human race. Hence it has been truly said that the two Hague Conferences, in so far as their representative character is concerned, have marked the longest stride which has been made in all history towards "The parliament of man, the federation of the world," dreamed of by the poets and prophesied by the seers.

With the number of countries represented nearly doubled in the second Conference, the number of delegates was more than doubled, amounting to two hundred and fifty-six, many of these, as before, being scientific or military experts. The number sent by each country varied from one to fifteen; but, as before, each delegation had only one vote. The seats were again arranged in alphabetical order and according to the French names of the countries, and the United States was again ranked as *Amérique*. It was observed with interest that at the first two sessions of the second Conference the Americans and Spaniards and the Russians and Japanese sat side by side, with only a narrow aisle between.

The distribution of the offices was both an important and a delicate task, but the choice of the really important officials proved to have been most wise and successful. Those of most importance were the President of the Conference and the Presidents of the Commissions into which each Conference was divided for the concrete work of discussing and recommending to the Conferences themselves the measures proposed. The initiator of the two Conferences having been Russia, its first delegates, Baron de Staal in the first and M. Nelidow in the second, were unanimously chosen as the

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presiding officer. The Netherlands, as the host of the Conference, was given two honorary offices, its minister of foreign affairs being appointed Honorary President and its first delegate Vice-president of each Conference. The first Conference was divided into three commissions, and the second Conference into four. The presidencies of these commissions were given to eminent European statesmen and jurists, Bourgeois of France, Beernaert of Belgium, De Martens of Russia, and Count Tornielli of Italy. To the United States delegation went one of the Honorary Vice-presidencies in the first Conference, and two in the second.

The French language was used within the Conference and its various subdivisions. Almost all of the delegates who spoke were masters of French and spoke it fluently and extemporaneously. In some cases the addresses would be read from manuscipt, while it was the custom to print every proposition and distribute copies to each delegate in advance of its presentation. Only one exception to the rule of using the French language was made, and that was in the case of Ambassador Choate of the United States, who delivered his most important addresses in English a French translation of the same having been printed and distributed among the delegates before the address was made. In the case of Mr. Choate's extemporaneous remarks in debate Baron D'Estournelles de Constant of France, who is skilled in the use of both French and English would immediately give an oral translation of Mr. Choate's remarks. The reports of the procedure were of course kept and printed in French, and were distributed daily to the various delegates. The government of the Netherlands provided for the work of printing the records and performed this enormous and exacting task with extraordinary promptness and accuracy.

Although the president of the first Conference, Baron de Staal of Russia, was entirely inexperienced in parliamentary government and law, the leading delegates from Western Europe, Great Britain, and the United States were remarkably well versed in their principles and practice, and

under their guidance an excellent organization was effected. The first delegates from the various governments formed a kind of "cabinet" of advisors to the president, and within this "cabinet" there existed a kind of "steering committee" composed of the first delegates from the seven great powers. To these were added later the other leading spirits of the Conference, and although they acted entirely unofficially their influence was real and effective. The second Conference followed very closely the wise precedents set by the first in regard to organization. A cabinet of first delegates was not again necessary, and with forty-four governments represented such a cabinet would have proved unwieldy; but an inner circle or "steering committee" of a comparatively few leading spirits, chiefly delegates from the first powers, made their preponderating influence felt at critical times.

Among the most prominent leaders in the first Conference may be mentioned the Hon. Andrew D. White and Mr. Frederick W. Hollis of the United States; Sir Julian Pauncefote of Great Britain; Professor Zorn of Germany; Chevalier des Camps of Belgium; and Count Nigra of Italy. Among those of the second Conference may be mentioned Ambassador Choate and General Horace Porter of the United States; Baron von Bieberstein of Germany; Doctor Drago of Argentina; Ruy Barbosa of Brazil; and Count Tornielli of Italy. And among the leading spirits of both Conferences should be mentioned M. Leon Bourgeois, Baron D'Estournelles de Constant, and Professor Renault of France; M. Beernaert of Belgium; and Professor De Martens of Russia.

Ambassador White and Ambassador Choate were very active in advocating the exemption of private property from capture during warfare on the sea, and in promoting general treaties and courts of arbitration. General Porter achieved the memorable triumph in the second Conference of procuring an agreement for the arbitration of contractual debts before a resort to force for their collection. Sir Julian Pauncefote has won immortal fame as the author of

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the proposition to establish the Permanent Court of Arbitration and Mr. Hollis for his efficient services in working out the details of this court and in promoting mediation and good offices. Professor Zorn of Germany deserves great credit for inducing his government to assent to the establishment of the Permanent Court, and Baron von Bieberstein for his advocacy of an International Prize Court. The Belgian delegates and Professor De Martens of Russia and Counts Nigra and Tournielli of Italy were the prime movers in the codification of the laws of warfare on land and sea. Doctor Drago of Argentina, the distinguished champion of the Drago Doctrine, which forbids the use of force under any circumstances in the collection of debts contracted by governments, made a powerful appeal in support of his doctrine, but was finally induced to accept, with certain modifications, the Porter Proposition. M. Barbosa of Brazil led his delegation in support of the efforts of the American delegation to secure immunity for private property on the sea, arbitration for contractual debts, obligatory arbitration, and the periodical meeting of the Peace Conferences; but he was the ablest and most persistent opponent, for thoroughly conscientious reasons, of the proposition to establish a Court of Arbitral Justice and the International Prize Court. The three French delegates named were most earnest and eloquent in furthering the plans for international arbitration and the revision and application of the Geneva Convention, or the Red Cross Rules, to warfare on land and sea.

The method of work pursued by the two Conferences was a very simple one. Before each of them assembled, the Russian government submitted to the other governments a program of topics to be discussed. The first program was accepted by the other powers without much discussion, and it was understood by all that questions concerning the political relations of states and the order of affairs established by treaties, as well as all questions which did not fall directly within the program, should be excluded absolutely from the deliberations of the Conference. The omission from the second Russian program of the questions of the limitation of

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armaments and the forcible collection of debts caused a very vigorous and lively discussion before the Conference met, and at the second session the United States delegation reserved the right of presenting the question of the forcible collection of debts, or any other question not mentioned in the program, and the British delegation also reserved the right of formulating new propositions. President Nelidow admitted the right claimed by the two delegations, but ruled that every new proposition not included in the topics enumerated in the program should first be submitted in writing to the president of the Conference and immediately printed and distributed among the members. Although for very important reasons it was entirely proper that the American and British demand should have been presented and acknowledged, it was nevertheless very fortunate that a fairly strict adherence to the original program was observed; for in this way the Conference was saved from wandering into endless discussion of numerous and varied knotty problems incapable of solution by them.

The various subdivisions of the Conference, including commissions, subcommissions, and committees of examination, were first determined upon, while to each state was given the right of being represented on the first of these subdivisions. It was left to the delegations to decide which of their members should become members of these subdivisions, but in them as in the Conference as a whole each state had only one vote. The practical method of procedure was as follows: The delegations which desired to submit propositions concerning the various questions would present them either in the Conference or in the commissions. These propositions would then be referred to the appropriate subcommission, which would discuss, reject, accept, or amend them. A "reporter," appointed at the first session of the subcommission would then present his report of the decisions made by the subcommission, which would accept or amend his report. This amended report would then be discussed in a meeting of the superior commission, and the commission's final report would be presented in a plenary

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session of the Conference itself, which would order its incorporation in the definitive agreements. In the case of exceptionally knotty questions it was also frequently necessary to form small committees of examination, which would report upon the desirability or undesirability of the various plans proposed.

Even after having run the gauntlet of the committee, subcommission, commission, and conference, some of the proposals agreed upon would not be accepted by the individual delegations, and some of the proposals recommended by delegations to their governments have not yet been adopted by them. Before the meeting of the Conferences, each delegation received from its government general instructions as to the course to be pursued by it concerning the matters enumerated in the program. These instructions would be adhered to by the delegations in the main, although on some important questions many of the governments were induced by their delegations to amend or withdraw the original instructions. There was a vast deal of cabling done by the various delegations concerning the details of the various propositions, as well as concerning the desirability of amending the original instructions. When the delegations received from the executive branch of their governments an authorization to sign the treaties agreed upon, these treaties would go into effect as far as those governments were concerned But in the case of the United States and some other governments based upon its model, the treaties, though signed by the delegations from those countries, would still be subject to ratification or rejection by the upper house of the Congress. The treaties rejected, however, by the senates have been very few in number, while some of the propositions adopted by the Conference and not signed by the delegations were subsequently adopted by the governments themselves.

It was only in case of a unanimous vote that a proposition adopted by the Conference was embodied in a "convention;" those propositions which failed of unanimous vote were embodied in so-called "declarations;" while matters

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of minor importance or upon which no general agreement could be secured were made the subject of "resolutions." The first Conference adopted three conventions, three declarations, and six resolutions. The second Conference adopted thirteen conventions, one declaration, and seven resolutions.

The expenses of the delegations were borne by their respective governments, while the Netherlands government, whose delegation could remain at home, contributed the cost of printing and publishing the records of the Conferences, and provided the place of meeting. The expense connected with the maintenance of the Permanent Court of Arbitration, of the International Prize Court, and of the International Bureau is borne by the various governments in the proportion established for the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union. The members of this Union are grouped in classes according to their size and presumptive wealth, and the members of each class bear an equal share of the expenses apportioned to that class. The expense connected with the International Commissions of Inquiry and with the trial of cases brought before the tribunals of arbitration, is borne in equal shares by each party to the inquiry or arbitration. The total cost of holding the two Conferences has not been estimated, but it is doubtless a very considerable sum. It may reasonably be doubted, however, if the total cost of either Conference exceeded the two millions of dollars necessary for the annual maintenance of a single ship of war of the *Dreadnaught* type; while the costs of each Conference to the government of the United States was considerably less than a year's interest on the costs of one of its *Dreadnaughts*.

The two conferences which have thus far assembled were undreamed of a dozen years ago, and their work and results can not be wholly appreciated at the present short distance from them. Already, however, some great facts stand out in connection with them, and these will be briefly referred to below. The enormous increase of *armaments*, on land and sea, within the last dozen years, because of their increasing burden upon the industry of the people in many

lands, and because of their increasing menace to international peace, have become a problem of burning and world-wide importance. This problem was not solved by either conference; but both of them emphasized with impressive eloquence its critical importance, and urged upon the governments a thorough study of its conditions and solution, so that this great obstacle may be removed from the path of those peace-making institutions which the conferences established.

*Warfare in the air,* by means of dirigible balloon, airship, or flying machine of any kind whatsoever, was prohibited at least until the end of the next conference; so that mankind shall be shielded for a time, at least, from the horrors of this kind of warfare, whose uncertainty of aim and impossibility of avoidance make it doubly horrible and menacing to both combatant and non-combatant alike.

In regard to *warfare on the sea,* that increasingly important arena of human warfare, some noteworthy steps were taken. The "American idea" that the private property of belligerents should be exempt from capture in time of warfare on the sea was so forcibly advocated by Ambassador White in the first Conference and Ambassador Choate in the second that, although the exemption was not agreed upon, twenty-one of the forty-four nations represented in the second Conference voted for it and only eleven voted against it. So great has been the progress made in this matter within the last few years that it seems very probable that the third Conference will come to this important agreement; and, in that case, the United States will join the large majority of other nations who have already agreed to abolish privateering.

The tendency towards the exemption of private property from capture on the sea was shown by the second Conference's adoption of agreements to accord to merchant ships in hostile ports a delay of favor before endeavoring to capture them, to treat the crews of captured merchant ships with especial leniency, to refrain from the capture or delay of mail, to exempt from capture ships engaged in fishing or

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in scientific, charitable, or religious missions, and to comply with strict and definite rules for the transformation of merchant vessels into warships. By these various agreements, the element of piracy has been restricted in warfare between civilized nations.

The fact that nations engaged in warfare do not "own the sea" any more than they "own the earth," and that neutral nations have rights which must be recognized, was strongly emphasized. The warships of belligerents, coming into neutral harbors and waters, were subjected to a code of stringent rules in regard to warlike activities, repairs, revictualling, recoaling, length of stay, and order of departure in case hostile ships enter the same neutral harbor. The growing belligerent custom of strewing the high seas with submarine mines and torpedoes,—those terrible "demons of the sea" which have already wrought great havoc to neutral merchantmen and constitute so deadly a peril to all neutral commerce—received a decided check by the agreements that no unanchored mines shall be used unless constructed in such manner as to become harmless within one hour after their control has been lost, that no anchored mines shall be used which do not become harmless as soon as they break away from their cables, that no automobile torpedoes shall be used which do not become harmless after missing their aim, that no mines shall be placed along the coasts or in front of the ports of the enemy with the object of intercepting commerce, and that every precaution be taken to protect peaceful navigation against submarine mines both during and after a war.

The agreement to refrain from the use of bombs diffusing asphyxiating or deleterious gases,—adopted by every government with the exeception of that of the United States; the prohibition of the bombardment of undefended ports, towns, villages, dwellings, or buildings; the restriction in various ways of the bombardment of defended ports, etc.; and the adaptation to naval warfare of the Geneva Convention with its Red Cross rules in regard to the activities and inviolability of hospital ships and corps,—are other import-

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ant steps taken by the conferences in the mitigation of the horrors of warfare on the sea, the protection of non-combatants, and the alleviation of the sufferings of warfare's victims.

The code of laws adopted for the regulation of *warfare on the land* is no less impressive than that which restricts warfare on the sea. A definite declaration of war, stating its causes, must be issued before an attack can be made, and thus not only is treachery prevented between combatants but the neutral world's right to information and warning of the intended war is recognized, the justification of the war is submitted to the public opinion of the world, and a chance is afforded neutral powers to mediate between the combatants in behalf of peace.

Some of the rights and duties of neutrals on land were carefully defined. For example, belligerents are forbidden to perform certain acts to their own military advantage on the territory of a neutral state; the relation of a neutral state towards belligerent soldiers, wounded, and invalids is carefully stated; the rights of neutral citizens residing within belligerent territory are carefully protected; and the property of railway companies belonging to neutrals but operating within belligerent territory is shielded from military rapacity.

The use of "dumdum" bullets, or those which expand or flatten easily in the human body, was prohibited by the vote of every delegation except that of the United States; the improvement of the Geneva Convention of 1864, with its Red Cross rules, was provided for by the first Conference and accomplished in 1906; and a great series of rules were adopted for the regulation of the means of injuring the enemy, bombardment, prisoners of war, spies, flags of truce, armistice, capitulations, and the occupation of hostile territory.

By these measures the mantle of humanity was thrown partially over the arm of force; and many of the brutalities which have disgraced former scenes of human conflict will be either alleviated or prevented; while the old adage that

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"in the midst of warfare laws are silent" has been replaced by one more worthy of the twentieth century, that "even in the midst of warfare laws shall prevail."

Measured solely by their achievements in the field of warfare, the two Hague Conferences are the most memorable events in the history of international law; but their chief claim to fame and their crowning glory was won in the field of peace. The prevention of warfare, the administration of international justice, the replacement of national force by international arbitration, and the substitution of good offices and mediation for warlike threats, of international courts and juristic statesmanship for national armies and battleships,—these are the great achievements which will cause the latest posterity of civilized man to cherish the first two Hague Conferences in eternal gratitude.

In place of the former jealous resentment of any "foreign intervention" which dominated international relations before 1899, the powers have substituted the agreement to have recourse to the good offices or mediation of one or more friendly nations, before an appeal to arms, in case of any serious dispute and as far as circumstances permit. They also unanimously agreed that it is useful and desirable for one or more powers stranger to the dispute to offer, on their own initiative and as far as circumstances permit, their good offices, to the states at variance with each other; and they further asserted the principle that such extension of good offices, even during the course of hostilities, shall not be considered by either of the parties to the dispute as an unfriendly act.

The wise motto, "investigate before you fight," was applied by the conferences in the endorsement of commissions of inquiry; and a resort to such a commission by two great powers, Great Britain and Russia, has already proven the truth of the adage, "investigate and you won't fight."

General Porter's memorable triumph in securing in the second Conference an agreement to arbitrate questions of international indebtedness before recourse is had to forcible collection, carries a fertile promise of peace and justice.

The establishment of the International Prize Court as a court of appeal from national courts in cases of merchant ships captured in naval war, was another great stride taken towards the prevention of warfare as well as towards the enforcement of justice; while both it and the "Porter Proposition" mentioned above constitute an encouraging advance towards general obligatory arbitration.

The Permanent Court of Arbitration, established in 1899, provides a list of eminent jurists of all nationalities, from which tribunals for the arbitration of international disputes may be promptly selected; while the International Bureau, Administrative Council, and detailed method of procedure adopted by the Conference, provide an ingenious machinery for facilitating these tribunals' labors.

The list of jurists comprising the Permanent Court of Arbitration, from which the arbitrators are chosen for the establishment of tribunals for the purpose of trying international disputes as they arise, is composed of not more than four men appointed to the service by each of the various governments. The members of the court never meet together, but serve only as called upon in the tribunals created for the arbitration of concrete cases. Meanwhile, there is at The Hague a truly permanent International Bureau, composed of a Secretary-General and various assistants.

The present meeting place of the Permanent Bureau and of such tribunals and commissions of inquiry which have been or may be appointed is in one of the fine edifices near the *Bosch*, "The Woods," in The Hague. Their future meeting place, as has been said, will be the Peace Palace presented by Mr. Carnegie. The International Bureau and all arrangements for the tribunals and commissions of inquiry are controlled by the Administrative Council, which is composed of the diplomatic agents accredited by the various governments to the government of the Netherlands. This council meets also in the building referred to whenever necessary, and acts as the permanent agent of the various governments for the supervision of all business con-

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ducted by the International Bureau and the various international bodies.

The Court of Arbitral Justice recommended by the second Conference to the governments for their adoption will be a truly permanent court. That is to say, its members will be chosen for a period of years and will reside at or be within reach of The Hague for the immediate trial of international differences, and its method of procedure and its decisions will partake far more of a genuinely judicial character than is the case with the arbitral awards of the temporary tribunals of arbitration. The difficulty, which was found to be insuperable, in connection with the proposed Court of Arbitral Justice had to do with the number of judges to be appointed. It was generally agreed that to be a really useful and genuine court its members should not number more than fifteen; but how to appoint these fifteen members so that the interests of each of the forty-five governments should be served was found to be a problem impossible of solution for the Conference itself. On the other hand, the Conference was unanimous in recommending to their governments that they should set the court in operation just as soon as two or more of them should agree upon the method of choosing the judges. At the present time the governments foremost in the endeavor to establish a genuine Court of International Justice are engaged upon the two-fold task of making treaties of arbitration with each other, determining the kinds of questions which shall be submitted to arbitration, and the solution of the problem of how to put the Court of Arbitral Justice in speedy operation. Our own Secretary of State, Mr. Elihu Root, has negotiated twenty-four such treaties; and much is hoped for from him, as a member of the United States Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs, in the organization of the Court of Arbitral Justice upon whose proposal and development he exerted great influence.

The incalculable benefit already derived by the world from the operation of the few Hague tribunals which have been created since the first Conference, cannot be dwelt upon

here, but should be known and appreciated by every lover of peace and justice in the world.

If the Court of Arbitral Justice, proposed and so ably advocated by our American delegation in 1907, can secure the acceptance of the nations, a court truly judicial and truly permanent will be established side by side with the earlier one.

And if we add to all of the accomplished facts referred to above the principle, adopted by the last Conference, that each subsequent Conference may provide for the assembling of its successor—without depending upon the initiative of Russia or of any other power,—it will be readily admitted that within the short span of eight years the world has come within view of the seer's vision and the poet's dream,—the time when

". . the war-drum throbbed no longer, and the battle-flags were furled
In the Parliament of Man, the Federation of the World."

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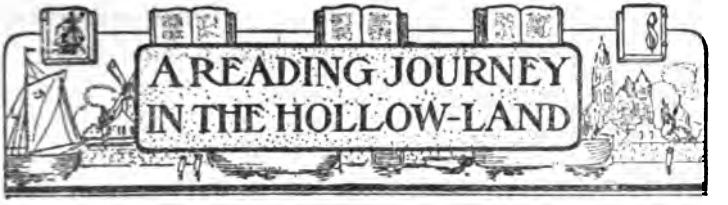


# Part VIII. The Theaters--The Stork --The Quaintness of Some Shops --The Tramways--Travel on the Canals--The Sabot Maker*

By George Wharton Edwards

THE Hollander takes his pleasures very seriously, and he undoubtedly thinks himself justified in so doing. His business during the day is carried on in a very business-like way, but when he goes to his luncheon at midday he foregathers at his clubs and in the restaurants with a great show of leisure. I do not refer now to the peasantry but rather to the better class. Although my knowledge of the Dutch language is rather elementary, as necessarily a foreigner's must be, from the character of the tongue which is most difficult, I have witnessed what must be characterized as very good performances at the play-houses in Amsterdam, and which were certainly received with great enthusiasm by the audiences. Considerable taste is manifested in the theaters, and they seem to be well supported, although the prices are rather high. But one feature is missed and agreeably so: the ticket speculator; this individual is conspicuous by his absence.

In Amsterdam are the "Stad Schouwburg" devoted to the Dutch drama and French opera, the Grand Theater, the Park Schouwburg, in the oriental style of decoration and given up to the spectacular, the "Frascati" and numer-

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ous *cafés Chantants*. In these last smoking and drinking are permitted. The large theaters are closed in the summer as the people of the better classes are at the seaside resorts, but at the "Paleis Voor Volksvlijt," said to hold 12,000 persons, there are occasional concerts, and also in the zoological gardens and in the "Vondel Park," or at the "Tolhuis," a large tea garden situated on the farther bank of the Y. From this garden is a fine view of the lighted city at night, and the music of an excellent military band may be enjoyed.

In the curious old "Pyl-Steeg" in Amsterdam there is a quaint shop said to have been founded in 1575 to which I was directed by my Dutch friend, and here in a tiny street, where I could touch the houses on either hand, I found a thin, dried-up old fellow sitting behind a leaden-covered counter under a double row of fat, wide, high-waisted, black bottles, ranged on a shelf above his head, each bottle decorated with a well painted head, or a scene copied from one of Tenier's pictures, and not too badly done, either. While I was studying these with interest, for I had never seen so many of them at once, the bric-a-brac shops in America having occasionally one or two for which they ask very large prices, my friend gave an order and the old fellow seizing one of the bottles by the neck with a deft turn of his wrist unerringly ejected a gurgling modicum of the contents into each glass before him. These glasses are very flat, something like a morning glory cup with long, thin stems and they hold very little. The act was done with such skill that I expressed my surprise that he did not spill a drop and when this was explained to the old fellow, he seemed much pleased and placing some fresh glasses before him repeated the feat with great rapidity for my entertainment. One is supposed to taste the bitters without touching the hand to the glass, this feat being performed by stooping over the glass and sipping it up, after which one may drain the glass in the ordinary way. This was my introduction to the celebrated "Maag Bitter" shop where the Amsterdamer has taken his bitters for years.

The stork is an interesting institution, the birds being

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treated with great and singular respect in the Netherlands. These strange birds may be seen here and there, almost everywhere in the South, but I do not remember seeing any in the North. The house selected by the stork for a nesting place, is considered fortunate, and very special facilities are provided by the householders to enable it to build a nest comfortably. At the Hague many of these birds are maintained at public expense. The first that I saw was from a window of the railway train as we were crossing the "Hollandsdiep," when a chimney-top came into view on which were two of the long-legged creatures, preening themselves, their nest, an unsightly bundle of sticks and straw, littering the housetop.

The tobacco shops in the larger towns are certainly unique, the Hollander being a great smoker. The shops are very numerous in the large cities and the merchant has a curious way of piling up the cigar boxes in most fantastic shapes and combinations, both in the window and inside the shop, so that one sometimes fears lest the whole fabric will come tumbling down about his ears. Tobacco is surprisingly cheap in the Netherlands, cigars ranging from a penny (Dutch) up. After a long experience and a considerable expenditure, I discovered that as a rule the penny ones are almost as good as those marked twenty-five cents.

The drug stores are so entirely unlike ours that they call for comment. Over the door which is invariably kept closed and is quite small and narrow, suggesting sometimes a private house, hangs a wooden head surmounted by a turban. This is called a "Gaper," why I cannot discover. The heads are of various styles and shapes, some are black, some are red, some are yellow, as of the negro or the Chinaman, but they one and all have wide, staring eyes and huge, red, open mouths. Coming upon one suddenly in a back street, by a quiet canal, I somewhat timidly turned the handle of the door—a bell loudly tinkled as I entered but no one responded. The room, a small one, with sanded floor, was permeated by the odor of strange drugs and herbs; bottles of all shapes and sizes bearing gilded inscriptions in

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Latin, were closely ranged on shelves all about; at the farther end was a high counter, on which were more bottles and several fine, brass-mounted Delft jars with their peculiar blue decorations. The floor was nicely sanded in ornamental figures. I looked in vain for the sodawater fountain, so familiar to our American hearts, for the candy counter and the soap and tooth brushes. I found them not; then all at once I became aware of a pair of bright eyes beneath a lace cape regarding me fixedly from a point of vantage between two, large, brass-topped Delft jars. The stare bestowed upon me was calm and very disconcerting. We gazed into each other's eyes for several moments, and then I became very much embarrassed. I coughed nervously behind my hand. "Jungjufrow," I began haltingly—"What will Mynheer have?" she said composedly.

"True enough," thought I—what will I have? What do apothecaries have to sell? Of course—pills! Then said I aloud and confidently, "Pills! Jungjufrow."

"But what kind, Mynheer?"

"Why," said I with great inspiration (I could not think of the Dutch word at the moment) *"large pills,* twenty-five cents worth," at which she looked at me so strangely, and she was so pretty that I became more and more disconcerted, so that when she gave them to me I did not examine them, but departed rather hurriedly as if I had intruded, and when I was once more in the street and I saw the water of the canal I went over very quietly and dropped the box of pills into it. Glancing back, I saw her watching me with that calm disconcerting gaze and I also saw in the other windows, rows of other faces, old and young, likewise regarding me. Then my eyes ranged back to the window where I last saw the face of the "Jungjufrow." She lifted her hand, pulling the curtain aside, the better to watch me, and certainly she had reason to think me a suspicious character. So I fled in some confusion.

The steam tramway system of Holland is most entertaining. Often it has been my pleasure to wait for one un-

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derneath the shelter of a wayside inn, and watch its meandering approach under the shady boughs of the fine trees, watching the sunlight and shadow play upon it as it bumped and puffed along the quiet street and finally to swing myself aboard with a nod of greeting to the uniformed conductor, who takes up his fares in a rattling sort of tin savings-bank, with a handle, and a spout which he thrusts before each passenger in turn. One who loves nature and his fellow beings may enjoy himself to the full on one of these trams. If the proper study of mankind is man then here may one pass his time most profitably. Invariably I have fallen in with some good-humored loquacious peasant, on his way to or from market, and always have I met with kindness and consideration. Traveling in this way is cheap and most convenient. And the landscape, how shall I describe it? The meadows with fat kine, the mills of a hundred varieties, the villas with their charming grounds, and the golf greens—it will surprise you to know that golf was played by the Hollanders before it had yet found its way into England. My authority is found in many of the old paintings of the Netherlands. Of course of late years, there has been a great awakening in the game, and now there are many most flourishing clubs throughout the country. A most charming tram ride through picturesque scenery is one from Amsterdam to Hilversum and through Laren, lovely Laren, beloved by artists, thence to Naarden and Muiden, over flat open meadows dotted with jacketed black and white cows, calmly grazing and tended by solitary peasants clad in pale blue blouses which Mauve loved so well to paint, and who gaze at the passing tram stolidly. Running between level stretches of "mere," and finally into a sandy country where sparse firs grow, we then come upon the towers of Nijkerk, Harderwijk, Utrecht, and Amersfoort. Here, as I have said, Mauve painted his masterpieces, very lovely transcripts of nature they are too, and this hallowed spot is venerated by a colony of loyal artists, all of whom are following the master and continuing his precepts.

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Throughout the Netherlands sad to say the beautiful and curious costumes which once characterized the peasantry are now more and more confined to the small villages and remote communities and rarely seen, as I have said, save on market days in the cities, and then only on the peasants and workers of the soil. And it is on these occasions still possible to tell just what province, island, or corner they represent. Only the Walcheren woman wears a hat strictly speaking, and it is of straw, trimmed with violet or plaid ribbon with long streamers, and perched comically upon the beautiful cap of lace, called a "Muts," which is of stiffly starched white linen lace edged, and fastened in place by a gold band; the muts is plaited by hand over a band.

The head ornaments or "Hoofdijzer" are numerous and are almost invariably of red gold, and attached to them and hanging pendant are golden corkscrew-like adornments with embossed and pearl drops inset in wire work. Across the forehead is a flat plate of gold artistically worked fitting the shape of the brow, and coming to a point where it is fastened at the side.

Marking the province of South Beveland is a curious shawl of bright colors—and from the fashion of wearing it one can differentiate the Catholic from the Protestant. In the north the costume has lost much of its distinct character, —little being left save the cap or "Muts"—and at Schowen only the cap is still worn and the head ornaments have disappeared. The Duiveland women have adopted a most hideous bonnet with gaudy ribbons tied in a large bow beneath the chin which they wear with manifest pride over the lace cap, and nowadays once seldom sees, contrary to prevailing notions of the Dutch costume, a peasant woman wearing wooden shoes or "klompen" save on the farm, or muddy country roads.

One thing that impresses one strangely is the scarcity of men and boys on the canals. Women and girls there are a plenty on the boats, busily polishing and scrubbing and dipping up pails of water, and hanging out long lines of bright-colored garments to dry, and generally there is an

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Canal, Amsterdam.

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Quays and Weepers' Tower, Amsterdam.

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The Steiger, Rotterdam, with Waterway Serving as a Street.

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A Saw Mill, Middenweg.

The University at Utrecht.

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The Wooden-Shoe Maker's Hut in the Woods.

The Old Market, Amsterdam.

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Steamboats and Barges on the Spaarne, Harlem.

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Scene on the Rotte, Rotterdam, with Canal Boats.

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Weepers' Tower, Amsterdam.

Amsterdam Gate, Haarlem.

City Hall and Cathedral, Alkmaar.

Loading Boat with Cheeses, Alkmaar.

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excited black dog, nervously running from one end of the dock to the other scanning suspiciously the surface of the water and all passing objects. But man is conspicuous by his absence. Whenever he is present, he seems to be at his ease, lazily sitting on the ornamental tiller, pipe in mouth and seemingly lost in thought. The Dutch boat is immaculately clean, the decks are spotless, and wherever there is a bit of brass, it is polished to the last degree. The barges are invariably named as *The Lion of Flanders,* or *The Great William,* or *The Golden Sun. The Golden Tulip* seems to be the favorite name and the long curved tiller of the rudder which is most wonderfully carved, varnished, and gilded, is further enriched as a rule with a highly impossible crouching lion. There is a small house in the after part of the barge, and here are tiny, deep, curtained windows, in which are invariably blooming tulips or geraniums. Descending to the interior, there are generally two rooms; the first used as a kitchen and dining-room, has a shiny, black, cast-iron stove, mounted on absurdly high legs and lavishly trimmed with brass, fastened in a box of sand. The chimney pipe goes up through the roof and where the hole pierces the ceiling, there are festoons of bright rosettes of paper flowers. On the walls are the pots and pans of brass and copper, brightly burnished, and two starlings are in a wicker cage. A fat, sleek cat is generally on a cushion in a chair, and there is a row of braided stringed onions and sausage hanging from the ceiling. The floor is sanded prettily. There is almost invariably on the wall a framed picture of the Queen in her Friesland headdress, and the marriage certificate of the captain and his wife, gorgeously emblazoned. In the other small room leading off from this, are the berths of the captain, his wife, and the children. Traveling in this manner through the canals one sees every kind of fantastic boat imaginable in a long line, stretching out ahead and astern. Passing into the rivers and hoisting sail, one overtakes them slowly one by one, saluting the lusty vrouws courteously, and throwing an apple or a piece of candy to the children

who peer out of the doors of the deck house or lift aside the white muslin curtains and flatten their little noses against the glass to gaze at us. Here and there are shining beds of mud in the stream surrounded by curlews, circling gulls, and herons, all seemingly as tame as barn-yard fowls. As I have said, some of the boats are lavishly painted, and the water barrels on their decks will be decorated by green paint, polished brass, and some with landscapes, or naval battles, or bunches of flowers upon them. The masts of the vessel which are hinged at the base to permit them being dropped at the bridges, will be set off by a beautiful piece of hammered iron work, and the brown hulls are so richly varnished that one may almost see one's face in them. This procession of vessels, winding between the shoals and dykes with swelling, velvety, tanned brown sails and gaily streaming flags, forms a most beautiful picture against the ever changing background of Dutch landscape, mottled by the fleeting shadows of the sun, with an occasional red roof or mill here and there among the rows of willows.

It was in early June that I first traveled through the "Waterland" and it must have been an unusually wet time. Everywhere the meadows seemed flooded, and there were long sad-looking stretches of yellowish water. But this is all good for the country, I am told, although dispiriting to the traveler, who is forced to get his entertainment at the wayside inns. The ordinary Dutch breakfast at these waysides is very different from that to which we are accustomed, and as a rule provokes hilarity among Americans. Here the guests of the hotel will sit at a long table, covered with dishes, containing every variety of cold meat and sausage, various kinds of bread and cake, and huge bowls of cold boiled eggs. Why *cold* eggs, I cannot understand but I have never been served with hot ones, excepting upon order. The peasant is a great eater and one marvels at the quantities of sausage, rolls, veal, and ham with great piles of gingerbread and raw onions which he consumes. The peasant will take a hard-boiled egg, knock it on the table edge, cut it with a knife, peel it, dip it in the salt bowl, and put the

whole mass into his mouth at once, gazing at one with his watery blue eyes, as he slowly masticates it. I once saw my opposite neighbor eat fourteen in this way, and he then sighed, and told me he wasn't hungry! I have heard tales of egg eating competitions among the villagers at which prodigious, gastronomical feats are performed, but I am sorry to say I never witnessed one. After eating the fourteen eggs, my *vis-a-vis* finished his *light* breakfast with a huge dish of honey which he ate with a tablespoon. I could stand no more, so I left.

On the way through the country, the traveler on foot will find the farmers and their wives most kindly and hospitable. In every case one will be politely asked to enter, and refreshment will be set out on the table for which pay will be accepted under no consideration. There is generally a treasure chest in the house, the contents of which will be gladly displayed and most delightful bargains may be had in the out-of-the-way places. It was an opportunity such as this that put into my hands at a moderate price a lovely silver headband. These bands are worn over a tight, black cap, and are from two to three inches wide, fitting tightly around the skull and culminating at each eye with a little silver or gilt ornament called a "Hoofdijzer." This band is in its turn covered by a white muslin cap but not always. Strange advice is sometimes given by these charming vrouws. I remember one household in which I coveted a lovely piece of beaten brass, and the housewife told me that "sometimes" she exchanged her old pieces for new ones, and I promptly went back to the village and brought a new brass milk can with which I returned. She seemed incredulous when I asked her to exchange with me and called in her daughters who stood shyly in the doorway, their beautiful lace caps clouding their pretty faces, as they regarded me with open-mouthed amazement. She declared that she could not take the beautiful new brass milk can from me, giving in return only the old patched kettle. In vain I attempted to explain to her that the old one was what

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I wanted, and that the new ones were quite useless to me and that I was really getting the best of the bargain. She waved this aside unbelievingly, and insisted upon throwing in two lovely pierced brass candlesticks and a little walnut foot-stove, one of the finest I have ever seen, and even then she said that her neighbors would blame her for defrauding me. Dear old dame, I shall never forget you! I have heard it urged that the Hollander has no kindly feelings towards the painter, but I have not experienced this myself. I have everywhere met with the greatest kindness and consideration. It is true that I have been told of the experience of an American artist at Marken who was stoned for making sketches and his canvases spoiled by sand and dirt being thrown upon them. If such happenings are true, then it must have been the fault of the men, themselves. The Markenites are very religious people and one should be careful not to offend their sensibilities. They keep to a very strict mode of Lutheranism and some of them believe that the making of pictures is a violation of the first commandment.

I remember Whistler getting into trouble at Dort. My friend van s'Gravesande, the noted etcher, and I had left the painter Whistler in the morning who said he wished to make a little sketch in a neighboring street. Toward noon we thought we would go down to see how he was getting on with it, and as we turned down a small alleyway leading to a canal, we saw a crowd of people and heard many angry excited voices. It was Whistler, of course, and he was surrounded by a crowd of angry fishwomen who were threatening to throw him into the canal, amid all of which, the great man was calmly waving his little brush at the excited people. Seizing one of the fishermen by the arm, my friend demanded in Dutch to know what was the trouble, and the man explained to him volubly. It seemed that Whistler had discovered a little shop near the canal, the window of which was full of oranges and lemons, and this, with the green paint of the shutters and the brilliant purple sign-board formed a scheme of color which he was unable to resist.

He, however, had objected to the arrangement of the oranges in the window, and insisted upon changing them to his own satisfaction in spite of the remonstrances of the shop-keeper. When Whistler had almost finished his picture, a very small one by the way, the angry shop-keeper had pulled down the curtain, quite spoiling Whistler's view and he, unable to speak Dutch, had insisted in English that the curtain should be raised. Alternately then the curtain went up and down, and finally the altercation became so serious that the neighbors took part in it. This drew the boatmen from the canal, and soon there was an excited mob the noise of which had attracted our attention. Van s'Gravesande placed himself at Whistler's side and facing the angry multitude, explained to them (in Dutch) that this was a great painter who was a stranger among them and knew nothing of their manners or customs, that for this reason he should be treated with great courtesy, and that he was surprised that his people should so forget themselves as to offer violence to a gentleman and a stranger. The people seemed ashamed of themselves at this and slunk away, but it certainly would have gone hard with Whistler had he not arrived so opportunely. Whistler, however, did not thank him in words, and contented himself with speculating at intervals, "Amazing! Amazing!" on the way back to the hotel.

We three passed many delightful days together rambling and sketching about old Dort, and these experiences I shall take pleasure in recording later on in another form, but I must say here that I look back upon these days as some of the happiest ones that I spent in the Netherlands.

The population of a Dutch fishing-town is as quaint as the vessels and the charming, old gabled houses. The fishermen have a character all their own, superb, thick-set, well-fed fellows they are. Their food at sea is not very generous, but there is always in the fore-castle or the galley, a steaming pot of coarse fish and potatoes, ready at hand so that each may help himself at will. The fishermen are the flower of the race for strength and hardihood, and they

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present an admirable type. While they are peaceable as a rule, when it comes to a fight they can hold their own. Yes, some of them are bullies, but it must be said that their surroundings are not such as to breed saints. When they do take to religion, however, they are very devout. I can describe one experience with a fleet in the North Sea. We were after the herring, and our little craft was a mere toy compared with the mighty fishing smacks that sail from the English coast towns. It was evening when we stole away from the mouth of the Y, and our blunt bowed Tjalk with its brass-bound boom rippled away the surface of the orange-colored sea, aflame with the setting sun. We lay about quietly until dawn, eagerly watching until we saw the predatory flock of gulls rising and diving over the shoal. There is no child's play in the herring fishery. The boat runs out with her nets coiled amidships and heads away to meet the innumerable schools of migrant fish. The buoy is flung over, and then the net is "shot" swiftly by the fishermen, until the line of corks winds astern for many a yard like a bobbing serpent on the quiet sea. The leaden weights sink and the snare adjusts itself, now comes a pause; the men sit down quietly and light their pipes; all eyes are fixed on the water and then we wait. Of a sudden in the distance we see a strange disturbance on the surface of the sea, and a lambent, greenish light appears in the water. Then the gulls begin to call from high overhead. A whispering, popping sound fills the air as if of a thunder shower but it is the noise made by millions of leaping fish. With mysterious, gliding, sidelong movements they swim; against wind or tide their progress continues. Now they are heading towards us. A buoy rears for an instant and then plunges under, then under goes another; a third, fourth, and fifth follow quickly; and the lines of corks are sagging and plunging as the weight of the fish drags them down. We are watching almost breathlessly, and finally the patroon gives the word and the first buoy is pulled in. Over the side the whole sea seems to be a vast glow of emerald flame, flashing in the depths and outlining the barrier of the nets. This flame

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seems to wind among pale sheets of snowy foam. Long streaks fringed with jewels dart away from the meshes of the nets. The whispering sound that I described before fills the ears, and the fish are leaping high in the air. Now the heavy nets are pulled over the side, the men straining heavily while their muscles dart out like coils of steel, and, little by little, the fish well is filled with a beautiful, silvery mass, and a curious shrill, squeaking sound, as from millions of mice, comes from the herring as their strained air-bladders burst. Our boat sinks low with its load and rises and falls in a very logy fashion at the lunge of the sea. The captain says we cannot stand another hundredweight, but it seems too bad to let the school go by and escape. So we watch greedily the beautiful fish leaping and glittering in the morning sun. The sight of a shoal of herring in the sunlight is one of the most picturesque to be seen. They bound up into the air, out of the water, all about us, but the slightest movement from the boat will cause them to "sound," then they will rise again and one may follow them for miles by the ravenous flock of gulls which hover over them. We fall in with other boats as we sail for the shore and the skippers compare notes in gutturals. A most picturesque sight we present as we glide in squadron toward the jetty. Most picturesque too are the men in their heavy boots and strange, high-waisted jackets, brawny giants all of them! How this breed of men came to be developed, it is difficult to say, but physically they are certainly the finest specimens of their race. The patroon's beard is sunny, his shoulders are as broad as an athlete's, he is like a mythical figure, such as Leif Ericson. He makes the plank creak as he walks, and one can see that he is all bone and brawn. You cannot forget his glittering steel-blue eye, nor the flash of his white teeth. There are scores of him among the fishermen, and it is such men as he that make the fishing ports worth visiting.

One afternoon in wandering in the outskirts of Zwolle in the north of Holland, I was attracted to a little hut in the wood. 'Twas here I discovered a man and his wife making

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wooden shoes. He had sawn the wood into oblong square shapes and they were piled up in a rude sort of workshop, against the wall. He stood at a rough bench and with drawknife he skilfully and rapidly fashioned the pieces of wood into the shapes of wooden shoes. I could not but admire the ease with which he did the work. His wife, nearby, was finishing the shoes with a small sharp knife, and a row of the finished product was neatly arranged on a bench before her. I offered him a big, fat cigar and this quite disarmed him and when I produced another for myself and sat down and lighted a match which I offered him, he became quite friendly. The Dutch peasant's way of being friendly is to ask questions. Was I German or English, ah—American, North or South? His brother was in Curaçao at Willemstad. He was engaged in the dried fish business. Had I ever been in Curaçao? Ah—New York! He examined me through a cloud of smoke. Were my shoes made in New York? So—how much did they cost? Ah—so? What was my business? So? Did I make money at it? Was I married? How old was I? How long was I going to stay in Holland? Upon all these points I satisfied him.

Then my turn came and I fired the questions back at him, but he regarded this evidently as fair play and gravely responded. He was forty years of age; he had been married six years; he rented the house that he lived in; if it could be called such; yes, that was his wife sitting over there; yes, those were his three children; yes, it was difficult to make a living; no, he could not make a gulden a day even with the assistance of his wife; no, they did not often have meat to eat, they lived on dried fish, potatoes and beets; yes, they grew the vegetables themselves; no, that cow was not theirs; that belonged to the farmer, but they minded it while it grazed, and for this they received one quart of milk per day; yes, thank God! the children were healthy; no, he was not contented but he was not unhappy; he feared that he might get into trouble because he was a drinking man; no, he did not often get drunk, the wife didn't like it; "Isn't

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that so, vrouw," he said. A slow smile broke over her not uncomely face, and she put down the shoe that she was finishing and folding the blue apron about her hands, she said, "Ja Mynheer." I don't think I ever had more satisfaction than I felt as the round pink fist of the baby on the earthen floor closed over the gulden that I put into it. The wife's ambition, I found, was to have a coral necklace! Verily women are the same the world over. They were living in bitter poverty with often hardly enough to eat even of fish and potatoes; there was not even a floor under their feet, and their funiture consisted of a bed built into the wall like a bunk, a heavy, bare table with some crockery on it, two wooden benches on either side, and a kerosene lamp hanging from the ceiling, and yet her longings were fixed upon a coral necklace which would cost twenty dollars, our money. I often think of these poor people in the little hut in that far away wood, and the longing in the eyes of that woman and I hope sincerely that somehow she got her necklace.

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# VIII. Modern Artists: Israels and Mesdag

By George Breed Zug

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IN the March article of this series it was noted that not all of the Dutch painters of the seventeenth century were devoted to the sincere and noble interpretation of their own country and people, but that many artists found their subjects among the peasantry and scenes of Italy. In the work of these Italianizers imitation took the place of invention, and affectation of sincerity, while a wearisome repetition of details was mistaken for realism. Thus eighteenth century Dutch painting was the painting of decadence, of simulated emotions, and of affected impressions. It was the painting of a time when all that had been best in the national art was forgotten or despised, and when all that should have been despised and forgotten was admired and cherished. Carefully arranged scenery, affected attitudes, porcelain-like surfaces, and insipid color reigned supreme well beyond the year 1800. From the end of the seventeenth century to the beginning of the nineteenth Holland did not produce a single painter who is worthy of mention in this place. It was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that Dutch art gave the faintest signs of a revival, and of the birth of the modern school of painting.

In order to understand how the existence of Dutch painting could lapse for almost a century and a half it is necessary to glance at the characteristics of European art



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during that time. The eighteenth century was so lacking in dominant forces as to be a period of imitation and affectation. In the first half of the nineteenth the great influence was that of Classicism, to be followed soon by Romanticism. During the first thirty years of the century the theories of the French painter, and leader of the Classicists, David, held sway over all European countries including Belgium and Holland. This period was one of artistic as well as of social and political agitation, and in opposition to Classicism as the gospel of esthetic salvation there arose Romanticism with Delacroix as its leader. The Classicists sought their inspiration in the histories and legends of Greece and Rome. They ignored color and worshipped line and form. Their models they found in antique sculpture, chiefly in that of Rome. Hence their painting with its careful drawing, its indifference to color and its absence of feeling had much the appearance of classic reliefs. The Romanticists, on the other hand, found their subjects not in classic, but in mediaeval history and legends. For them feeling and its expression were the chief ends of painting. Accuracy of drawing became subordinate to vigorous color, striking pose, and dramatic conception. For nearly half a century David was the autocrat of art and imposed his theories upon the whole world. But even before his death in 1825 there was a rebound from his extreme views and the Romanticists became supreme. However, both schools, whether with their classic or their mediaeval heroes, failed to understand that all great artists have expressed the spirit of their own age; hence they missed what was destined to become the great theme of modern art,—the interpretation of contemporary life. Both schools looked to the past although one of them was cold, abstract, and reserved, and the other hot-headed, individual, and impassioned.

When the first of the great modern Dutch painters, Bosboom and Israels, were young men, the waning influence of David and his school was still strongly felt in Belgium, perhaps less strongly in Holland, though the leading painters were either distant followers of David or else the adherents

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of those eclectic painters of France whose artificial art showed traces of classic influence in careful drawing and in thin color while still choosing as its subjects the romantic interpretation of history. Dutch art had become artificial, conventional, and unreal, something removed from and no longer a part of man's life. Moreover this was the only art cultivated or understood. The old indigenous, virile, and yet intimate Dutch art had ceased. But quietly and almost imperceptibly a change came, partly through the beneficial influence of the French landscape painters who have their name from the village of Barbizon at the edge of the forest of Fontainebleau, Corot, Millet, Rousseau, and Daubigny, and also partly through the influence of Johannes Bosboom and Joseph Israels, who were the first in point of time of those Dutch artists who were to break with the unrealities and conventions of both the Classicists and the Romanticists, and were to look at nature and at life naïvely.

Johannes Bosboom was born in 1817 and died as recently as 1891. Seven years the senior of Israels, Bosboom was destined to an artistic career very similar to that of Israels, and if more modest, yet truly influential. He not only helped to prepare the way for a new generation of artists, he even became one of them in work and in spirit as he was influenced by a new conception of art. At the opening of his career, Bosboom painted with a fidelity to nature in matters of detail which reminds one of the manner of the seventeenth century, whose traditions he actually followed. Though "The Old Church, Amsterdam" looks in reproduction as if it dated from the same period as Houckgeest's "New Church of Delft," Bosboom very soon gained a wider and more poetic vision together with a lighter and broader handling. Although there are to his credit some charming landscapes and many a picturesque rendering of old Dutch barns, yet he is known above all else for his church interiors which recall now Pieter de Hooch or Houckgeest by their treatment of architecture; now Rembrandt by their contrasts of sunlight and shadow. His pictures depend not at all on any dramatic or human interest; he chose his subjects

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apparently for the opportunity they afforded of rendering the effects of color, of atmosphere, and of warm sunlight contrasted with cool shadows. In fact he seemed to look at the lofty aisles and spacious naves of his quaint Dutch churches from the point of view of a landscape painter, for their purely pictorial qualities. These old churches with their white-washed walls seem cold and grey, but Bosboom warmed them up with the browns and reds of the women's costumes and the floods of sunlight on floors and walls and pillars. How Rembrandtesque is his massing of light and shade! How skilfully and by what delicate gradations of tone he makes the level floor to spread away, while he resolves the people into mere picturesque spots of color. Refined, retiring, sensitive, Bosboom was never intended by nature to be the herald of artistic liberty, the crier of a new cause. Nevertheless his loyalty to the best traditions of Dutch art, his sensitive perceptions of truth and beauty, and his sincere and delicate art unquestionably made him an uplifting influence on the rising generation of painters.

The great pioneer figure painter among the modern Dutchmen is Joseph Israels. Born in 1824 at Groningen of Jewish parents, he was intended by them for a commercial career and, to this end, after leaving school he entered the small banking house of his father. The boy was, however, a great reader of the Old Testament and of the Talmud, and had thoughts of becoming a rabbi; but he early showed such a strong inclination for art that in 1844, at the age of twenty, he was sent to Amsterdam to study under Jan Adam Kruseman, the fashionable painter of the period. The master taught him to paint the stilted historical canvases then popular, while at the same time advising him to study Rembrandt. In 1845 Israels was attracted to Paris by an exhibition of the works of that Frenchified Dutchman Ary Scheffer whose sentimental religious paintings were greatly in vogue. At this time Israels placed himself under Picot, a pupil of David, who was so successful a master that his studio was the resort of no less than one hundred and fifty students. From Picot, Israels passed to Paul Delaroche just after

Millet, who was destined to be the greatest interpreter of peasant life, had left him. Delaroche was an eclectic who showed some affinity to the Classicists, but who usually painted historical subjects romantically. It was his influence upon Israels which appeared in the latter's pictures painted upon his return to Holland in 1848. The very titles of this early Amsterdam period,—"Aaron Discovering the Corpses of his two Sons," "Hamlet and his Mother," "William the Silent, and Margaret of Parma," "Prince Maurice of Nassau beside the Body of his Father"—suggest the precise workmanship, the bright color, and the impersonal point of view then characteristic of the "grand historical" canvases of his French masters. This sort of thing would never have led the young painter to that personal expression of himself and of his own people to which he afterwards attained and to which he was led, as it were, by a happy accident. A serious illness sent him for convalescence to the small village of Zandvoort in the dunes near Haarlem. It was here, living quietly among the fisherfolk that he discovered to him new subjects in the lives of these humble people. His first interpretations of this life were made in his Parisian manner, but as he was led more and more to study Rembrandt his art grew broader, more intimate, more responsive to his own moods, and to his new themes. Only a few years before this his probationary drawing at the Ecole des Beaux Arts had been "Achilles and Patroclus," now, in 1862, he exhibited in London "The Cradle" and "The Shipwrecked Mariner." The two pictures raised a storm of applause and were the foundation of his international reputation.

One of the earliest of his pictures from the lives of the fisherfolk, "After the Storm," shows something of the smooth surface, bright coloring, and careful drawing that he learned in Paris, and at the same time his fondness for telling a pathetic story simply and effectively. That it is a fisherman who has been out on the storm-tossed seas and for whom his wife, mother and child are anxiously waiting is made plain by the apprehensive faces of the women, the glimpse of sky and water seen through the open door and

by the added touch of the fish net trailing limply from the chair to the floor. But the idea involved should not make us indifferent to the delicate art of the painting. With perfect naturalness the light plays upon the faces of the women, the grey wall, the blue china plates on the shelf, and the red curtain hanging below them, and falls straight across the red tiles of the floor.

One of the earliest pictures which helped to bring fame to the artist, "Passing the Churchyard," also called "Passing Mother's Grave," represents a stalwart sailor holding his little son by the hand, and carrying his baby girl as he strides bravely past the cross which marks the grave of the wife and mother. A later picture, painted when Israels had reached the height of his fame, "Alone in the World," is equally pathetic in its suggestion of sorrow and of loss. No one who beheld this picture in the Columbian Exposition can forget its touching pathos any more than one can forget the simplicity and directness of its art. A humble Dutch peasant whose wife has just passed away sits in the center of the room, his back turned towards the bed, his head slightly bowed in sign of utter bereavement. Here is a picture which from the craftsman's point of view is a masterpiece of simplification, of omission of all non-essentials. The eye is led first to the forlorn figure of the man, but soon takes admiring note of the light which strays through the window to fall on jug and glass, on floor and table. This painting has found a resting place in the Mesdag Museum at The Hague. There is, however, in the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam, another picture with the same title but with very different composition, where the light enters through a window at the back of the room, and in which the dead husband lies in the bed at the right while the mourning wife sits beside him. Some one has remarked that Israels paints as one having the conviction that our brief sojourn in this world is not the whole of man's destiny. Whether immortality can be suggested through the medium of paint and canvas, it is, nevertheless, true that Israels' world-wide popularity is based, partly at least, on the universality of his

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themes. Anxiety for the dear ones who go down to the sea in ships, sorrow for the dead, love of mother for child, and the joys and griefs of little children are all ideas sure to touch human hearts. But this appeal is human and sympathetic, not artistic. That which carries his stories of suffering, love, and pleasure into our hearts and minds is the great and fundamental secret of his art, his skill in harmonizing subject and environment. The dark grey sky seen through the door in "After the Storm," the darkling clouds in "Passing the Churchyard," the transparent gloom of "Alone in the World," the sunny sky and the rippling waves in "The Children of the Sea" afford in each case the most effective setting to the human scene. In each there is a perfect harmony of subject and surroundings, so that nature seems to be responsive to the life of her children.

Very different in subject, though near akin to the pictures mentioned in its qualities of insight and sympathy, is "The Son of the Old People," a Jewish peddler sitting at the door of his junk shop. But the most beautiful of the paintings of Israels which we reproduce is "The Ray of Sunshine." Painted in 1875 in the very best period of his work this picture is delightful in its quiet harmonies of color, its depth of tone, and its luminous shadows. Here again Israels shows himself a master in the interpretation of childhood. He is one of the few who successfully render the heads of little children, the fleeting expression on their faces, their awkward attitudes, and their characteristic gestures. That Israels does not always appeal to our tears or our sympathies may be seen by "A Ray of Sunshine" and "The Children of the Sea." This last has been a favorite subject with the master and it shows the perfection of his handling of one of the most difficult problems of modern painting, namely, the rendering of the effects of atmosphere and of light out of doors. In "Passing Mother's Grave" Israels along with other painters of the period handles light and shade in much the same manner as the old masters, but he kept abreast of his time and when other men took up the study of open air illumination he kept pace with them, as a glance at "The Children of the Sea" is sufficient to prove.

Children of the Sea. By Joseph Israels. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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Passing the Churchyard. By Joseph Israels. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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A Ray of Sunshine. By Joseph Israels.
*Courtesy of the Reinhardt Galleries, Chicago.*

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Children Playing in the Surf. By B. J. Blommers. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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After the Storm. By Joseph Israels. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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A Son of the Old People. By Joseph Israels. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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"Sisters." By B. J. Blommers.

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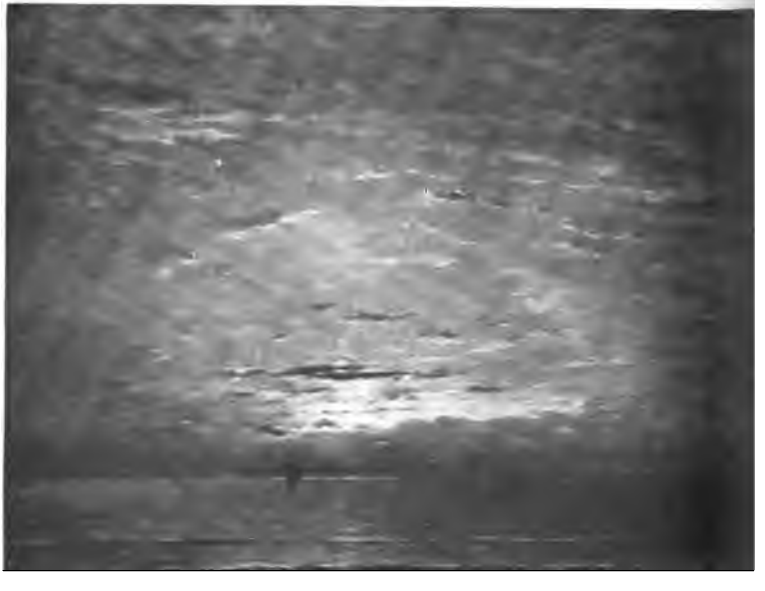
The Dutch Squadron. By Backhuysen (1631-1708). In the Louvre.



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A Stormy Day. By H. W. Mesdag. Shown at the St. Louis Exposition.

The Return of the Fleet. By H. W. Mesdag. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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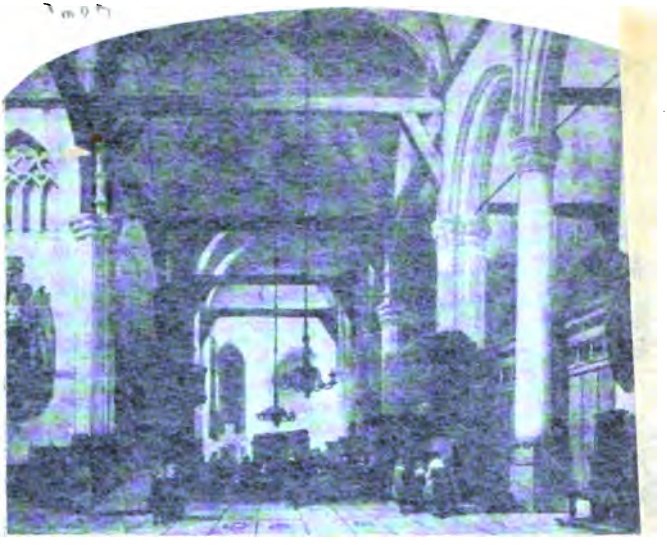

The Old Church, Amsterdam. By J. Bosboom (1817-1891). Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

The New Church of Delft. By Houckgeest (1600-1653). In Hague Museum.

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One critic has said that Israels' early work is "only so much unskilled and second-hand Rembrandt." But from the beginning there was a very little Rembrandt and very much Israels in his pictures. True it is he does not draw with the delicacy of Leonardo da Vinci, or the precision of David or Bouguereau, but if he did he would not be so successful in his treatment of his chosen material, for he does draw in a manner better suited to his purpose than merely accurate drawing ever could be. His drawing is significant. It is drawing that interprets the bowed back of the Jewish peddlar, the outstretched arms of the old woman leaning over the fire. Such drawing is rarer and more difficult than that which is faultless from an anatomical point of view. A score of artists can render the exact shape of the human figure where one has Israels' gift of suggesting the inner character of the man, the life of the soul. In this he is comparable to Millet and to Rembrandt. What has been said of Israels' drawing might also be said of his use of color and his handling of paint, both of which though very different from the dexterous brush-work and shiny surface of Sargent, are infinitely better suited to the purpose of the master. That he will not handle paint and mix colors in the manner of the French Carolus-Duran, or his great pupil Sargent is because he will express himself and his countrymen in his own individual way. He himself is said to have remarked to Liberman, "Barring Millet, there is no other artist who knows so little of drawing and painting as I yet has painted such good pictures." In spite of this, one of our leading landscape painters recently said to me that he had learned more from watching Israels paint for one-half hour than in all his three years of academical discipline in Paris.

The work of Israels sums up in a way the whole modern Dutch School: in his earliest work there is the careful workmanship, and lack of emotion of the early nineteenth century when Classicism was triumphant; then came his historical subjects with the added element of Romanticism; and finally, there is his "return to nature," which has been the

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dominant art motive during the last fifty years. By his wide sympathy, his range of subjects, his skill in adapting his means to his end Israels is the representative artist of his country in modern times. Indeed, one might almost say that Israels *is* the contemporary Dutch School. He paints the sentiment if not the waves of the sea better than Mesdag, he created the Dutch peasant interior before Artz and de Hoog and the host of other followers had dreamed of it, he had produced masterpieces of children on the shore before Blommers could hold a brush, and, although he is not usually thought of as a landscape painter, who since Rembrandt has with more skill employed landscape as an accessory to and as a means of interpretation of human emotion?

Nothing can so help one to understand the reason why Israels has held his commanding position in the world of art during the last two generations as does an acquaintance with the man. The writer deemed himself especially fortunate when on a sunny day last October he had the privilege of calling on the veteran artist at his home in The Hague. The old man, bent with his burden of eighty-four years, walked briskly into the room and greeted his caller with the cordiality of an old friend. What impressed me most forcibly was the alertness of his mind, his many interests, his genial good humor, and his vivacity. He walked and talked with the energy which we associate with twenty-five years of age. He showed great interest in what was going on in America, as in German and English affairs, and in my plans for a trip to Spain. Nothing seemed foreign to his interest. He was working on a picture of children on the seashore, and he eagerly pointed out a large porch adjoining the studio and explained that the painting of out-door scenes was a wholly different matter from that of interiors, and that for all open air pictures he posed his models in the sunshine on this porch, going afterwards to the sea to paint the water. When he spoke of his beloved art his eyes flashed and his voice trembled with interest and emotion. Here was no sentimental idealist, no impractical dreamer, but a vigorous artist whose many sympathies and whose unfailing in-

tuition have enabled him to interpret dramatically so many phases of the life of his own people. Here was a man whose force of character, whose vigorous body and active brain sufficiently explained his commanding position, his tremendous influence in Europe as in Holland.

In view of what has been said of the importance of Israels in his school it is unnecessary for our purpose to discuss all the painters who followed him. The last half century has been a prolific period in Holland, and rich and varied has been the output of its hundreds of studios. One of the earliest of the disciples of Israels was D. A. C. Artz (1837-1890), who in the painting of cottage interiors folfowed his master at a distance. That subject found perhaps its most successful treatment at the hands of Albert Neuhuys (born in Utrecht in 1844). Another painter of the figure who deserves more than mere mention is Christoffel Bisschop (1828-1904). Born in Friesland, he often returned there in after life to depict the peasants in their richly colored costumes and their beautiful Frisian interiors, picturesque with antique furniture, brasses, and pottery. In a school whose men loved to tell stories Bisschop was, perhaps, the most anecdotal of them all. He was, moreover, a striking colorist and distinctly the realist of the group. His pupil, B. J. Blommers (born at The Hague in 1845) portrays the homes of the peasantry in Brabant and the fisherfolk of Scheveningen, and always with zest and human kindliness. His men and women are never bowed with sorrow and care, and his many pictures of children playing on the beach tell of good spirits and happy days. One of the youngest of the successful painters of humble life in Holland is Bernard de Hoog (born 1867) whose pictures of cottage interors show the evident influence of Israels and at the same time the tonal qualities and individual color of their creator. It should be remembered that we are here mentioning only a few of the leaders among the figure painters. Since the discussion of the landscapists forms the subject of the next and final paper, it remains only to speak of the pioneer among Holland's recent painters of the sea.

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H. W. Mesdag was born in 1831 in Groningen, where he remained in the banking business until 1866. In that year he visited Brussels where he frequented the studios of his countrymen Alma Tadema and Willem Roelofs, and received added stimulus to his innate love of art. Two years later a sojourn on the island of Norderney decided his career. At the age of thirty-seven then he adopted the profession of painter. He soon proved himself the possessor of unusual gifts and in 1870 sent a large marine to the Paris Salon, which was purchased by the artist Chaplin and brought him a letter of congratulation from Millet. From that day to this he has been the interpreter of the North Sea and the leading marine painter of Holland. Perhaps his greatest gift in his ability to "make a picture," by which we refer to the skill he has shown in his choice of subjects, in selection and in arrangement. That this is ever uppermost in his mind is suggested if not proved by a favorite saying of Mesdag's, "Look after the center of your picture and the rest will look after itself." Of the various aspects of the sea Mesdag seems to love best the lull that comes just before the storm when the clouds are hanging heavy and the winds are gathering for the struggle, as in "A Stormy Day." A more unusual mood of this master is seen in the glowing sky and shimmering waters of his "Sunset." Some writers have complained of a certain monotonous grey, or muddy tone in Mesdag's pictures, but he has not chosen the sunny waters of Italy for his subject, and, in fact the sandy soil on the borders of the North Sea give to the water just the color that Mesdag has observed so carefully and has reproduced so skilfully. He may not interpret the waters that wash every shore, his pictures may sometimes be lacking in atmospheric effect, as certain critics assert, but his importance as a pioneer in marine painting will readily be recognized if one remembers the character of the sea pieces of his predecessors. They were indeed timid performances, in which tin ships rested on seas of paint, seas whose waves were as solid as rock and quite as motionless, and over which pasteboard skies shed no light. Some idea of the originality and truth of Mesdag's

art may be obtained by comparing his "Return of the Fleet" with Backhuysen's (1631-1708) "Dutch Squadron." Though the latter composed his pictures carefully, so that each ship on one side of the picture is balanced by another on the opposite side, his sugar-loaf waves are untrue in shape and entirely lacking in movement, while he is equally unsuccessful in the rendering of atmosphere and light. On the other hand, how natural and how true is Mesdag's "Return of the Fleet" in the suggested movements of both boats and water and in the effect of the light from the lowering grey sky as it plays on the sails of the ships and on the foam of the waves.

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SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READING WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

*(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for May, pages 177-245.)*

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# Famous European Short Stories

## Mamsell Fredrika

By Selma Lagerlöf

[*"Mamsell Fredrika," the work of the celebrated Swedish writer, Selma Lagerlöf, is here reproduced from the volume "Invisible Links" by permission, and through the courtesy of the publishers, Little, Brown & Company. The story is interesting not only as the work of one of the best of modern Scandinavian authors, but also in that it gives a picture of the celebrated novelist and social reformer, Fredrika Bremer* (1801-1865) *who did much to improve social conditions in Sweden, her greatest success being the removal of certain legal disabilities which kept women in a dependent position. She was also instrumental in increasing the educational opportunities of Swedish women. The facts of her rather unhappy youth were as related in the story.*—THE EDITOR.]

IT was Christmas night, a real Christmas night. The goblins raised the mountain roofs on lofty gold pillars and celebrated the midwinter festival. The brownies danced around the Christmas porridge in new red caps. Old gods wandered about the heavens in gray storm cloaks, and in the Osterhaninge graveyard stood the Horse of Hel.* He pawed with his hoof on the frozen ground; he was marking out the place for a new grave.

Not very far away, at the old manor of Arsta, Mamsell Fredrika was lying asleep. Arsta is, as every one knows, an old haunted castle, but Mamsell Fredrika slept a calm, quiet sleep. She was old now and tired out after many weary days of work and many long journeys,—she had almost traveled round the world,—therefore she had returned to the home of her childhood to find rest.

Outside the castle sounded in the night a bold fanfare. Death mounted on a gray charger had ridden up to the castle gate. His wide scarlet cloak and his hat's proud plumes

*The goddess of death.



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fluttered in the night wind. The stern knight sought to win an adoring heart, therefore he appeared in unusual magnificence. It is of no avail, Sir Knight, of no avail! The gate is closed, and the lady of your heart sleeps. You must seek a better occasion and a more suitable hour. Watch for her when she goes to early mass, stern Sir Knight, watch for her on the church-road!

* * * * * *

Old Mamsell Fredrika sleeps quietly in her beloved home. No one deserves more than she the sweetness of rest. Like a Christmas angel she sat but now in a circle of children and told them of Jesus and the shepherds, told until her eyes shone, and her withered face became transfigured. Now in her old age no one noticed what Mamsell Fredrika looked like. Those who saw the little, slender figure, the tiny, delicate hands and the kind, clever face, instantly longed to be able to preserve that sight in remembrance as the most beautiful of memories.

In Mamsell Fredrika's big room, among many relics and souvenirs, there was a little, dry bush. It was a Jerico rose, brought back by Mamsell Fredrika from the far East. Now in the Christmas night it began to blossom quite of itself. The dry twigs were covered with red buds, which shone like sparks of fire and lighted the whole room.

By the light of the sparks one saw that a small and slender but quite elderly lady sat in the big arm-chair and held her court. It could not be Mamsell Fredrika herself, for she lay sleeping in quiet repose, and yet it was she. She sat there and held a reception for old memories; the room was full of them. People and homes and subjects and memories of youth, love and tears, homage and bitter scorn, all came rushing towards the pale form that sat and looked at everything with a friendly smile. She had words of jest or of sympathy for them all.

At night everything takes its right size and shape. And just as then for the first time the stars of heaven are visible, one also sees much on earth that one never sees by day. Now in the light of the red buds of the Jerico rose one could

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see a crowd of strange figures in Mamsell Fredrika's drawing-room. The hard "ma chère mère" was there, the good-natured Beata Hvardagslag, people from the East and the West, the enthusiastic Nina, the energetic, struggling Hertha in her white dress.

"Can any one tell me why that person must always be dressed in white?" jested the little figure in the arm-chair when she caught sight of her.

All the memories spoke to the old woman and said: "You have seen and experienced so much; you have worked and earned so much! Are you not tired? Will you not go to rest?"

"Not yet," answered the shadow in the yellow arm-chair. "I have still a book to write. I cannot go to rest before it is finished."

Thereupon the figures vanished. The Jerico rose went out, and the yellow arm-chair stood empty.

In the Osterhaninge church the dead were celebrating midnight mass. One of them climbed up to the bell-tower and rang in Christmas; another went about and lighted the Christmas candles, and a third began with bony fingers to play the organ. Through the open doors others came swarming in out of the night and their graves to the bright, glowing House of the Lord. Just as they had been in life they came, only a little paler. They opened the pew-doors with rattling keys and chatted and whispered as they walked up the aisle.

"They are the candles *she* has given the poor that are now shining in God's house."

"We lie warm in our graves as long as *she* gives clothes and wood to the poor."

"She has spoken so many noble words that have opened the hearts of men; those words are the keys of our pews."

"She has thought beautiful thoughts of God's love. Those thoughts raise us from our graves."

So they whispered and murmured before they sat down in the pews and bent their pale foreheads in prayer in their shrunken hands.

* * * * * *

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At Arsta some one came into Mamsell Fredrika's room and laid her hand gently on the sleeper's arm.

"Up, my Fredrika! It is time to go to the early mass."

Old Mamsell Fredrika opened her eyes and saw Agathe, her beloved sister who was dead, standing by the bed with a candle in her hand. She recognized her, for she looked just as she had done on earth. Mamsell Fredrika was not afraid; she rejoiced only at seeing her loved one, at whose side she longed to sleep the everlasting sleep.

She rose and dressed herself with all speed. There was no time for conversation; the carriage stood before the door. The others must have gone already, for no one but Mamsell Fredrika and her dead sister were moving in the house.

"Do you remember, Fredrika," said the sister, as they sat in the carriage and drove quickly to the church, "do you remember how you always in the old days expected some knight to carry you off on the road to the church?"

"I am still expecting it," said old Mamsell Fredrika, and laughed. "I never ride in this carriage without looking out for my knight."

Even though they hurried, they came too late. The priest stepped down from the pulpit as they entered the church, and the closing hymn began. Never had Mamsell Fredrika heard such a beautiful song. It was as if both earth and heaven joined in, in the song; as if every bench and stone and board had sung too.

She had never seen the church so crowded; on the communion-table and on the pulpit steps sat people; they stood in the aisles, they thronged in the pews, and outside the whole road was packed with people who could not enter. The sisters, however, found places; for them the crowd moved aside.

"Fredrika," said her sister, "look at the people."

And Mamsell Fredrika looked and looked.

Then she perceived that she, like the woman in the saga, had come to a mass of the dead. She felt a cold shiver pass down her back, but it happened, as often before, she felt more curious than frightened.

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She saw now who were in the church. There were none but women there; grey, bent forms, with circular caps and faded mantillas, with hats of faded splendor and turned or threadbare dresses. She saw an unheard-of number of wrinkled faces, sunken mouths, dim eyes and shrivelled hands, but not a single hand which wore a plain gold ring.

Yes, Mamsell Fredrika understood now. It was all the old maids who had passed away in the land of Sweden who were keeping midnight mass in the Osterhaninge church.

Her dead sister leaned towards her.

"Sister, do you repent of what you have done for these your sisters?"

"No," said Mamsell Fredrika. "What have I to be glad for if not that it has been bestowed upon me to work for them? I once sacrificed my position as an authoress to them. I am glad that I knew what I sacrificed and yet I did it."

"Then you may stay and hear more," said the sister.

At the same moment some one was heard to speak far away in the choir, a mild but distant voice.

"My sisters," said the voice, "our pitiable race, our ignorant and despised race will soon exist no more. God has willed that we shall die out from the earth."

"Dear friends, we shall soon be only a legend. The old Mamsell's measure is full. Death rides about on the road to the church to meet the last one of us. Before the next midnight mass she will be dead, the last old Mamsell.

"Sisters, Sisters! We are the lonely ones of the earth, the neglected ones at the feast, the unappreciated workers in the home. We are met with scorn and indifference. Our way is weary and our name is ridiculous.

"But God has had mercy upon us.

"To *one* of us He gave power and genius. To one of us He gave never-failing goodness. To one of us He gave the glorious gift of eloquence. She was everything we ought to have been. She threw light on our dark fate. She was the servant of the homes, as we had been, but she offered her gifts to a thousand homes. She was the caretaker of the

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sick, as we had been, but she struggled with the terrible epidemic of habits of former days. She told her stories to thousands of children. She had her poor friends in every land. She gave from fuller hands than we and with a warmer spirit. In her heart dwelt none of our bitterness, for she has loved it away. Her glory has been that of a queen's. She has been offered the treasures of gratitude by millions of hearts. Her word has weighed heavily in the great questions of mankind. Her name has sounded through the new and the old world. And yet she is only an old Mamsell.

"She has transfigured our dark fate. Blessings on her name!"

The dead joined in, in a thousandfold echo: "Blessings on her name!"

"Sister," whispered Mamsell Fredrika, "can you not forbid them to make me, poor, sinful being, proud?"

"But, sisters, sisters," continued the voice, "she has turned against our race with all her great power. At her cry for freedom and work for all, the old, despised livers on charity have died out. She has broken down the tyranny that fenced in childhood. She has stirred young girls towards the wide activity of life. She has put an end to loneliness, to ignorance, to joylessness. No unhappy, despised old Mamsells without aim or purpose in life will ever exist again; none such as we have been."

Again resounded the echo of the shades, merry as a hunting-song in the wood which is sung by a happy throng of children: "Blessed be her memory!"

Thereupon the dead swarmed out of the church, and Mamsell Fredrika wiped away a tear from the corner of her eye.

"I will not go home with you," said her dead sister. "Will you not stop here now also?"

"I should like to, but I cannot. There is a book which I must make ready first."

"Well, good-night then, and beware of the knight of

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the church-road," said her dead sister, and smiled roguishly in her old way.

Then Mamsell Fredrika drove home. All Arsta still slept, and she went quietly to her room, lay down and slept again.

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A few hours later she drove to the real early mass. She drove in a closed carriage, but she let down the window to look at the stars; it is possible, too, that she, as of old, was looking for her knight.

And there he was; he sprang forward to the window of the carriage. He sat his prancing charger magnificently. His scarlet cloak fluttered in the wind. His pale face was stern, but beautiful.

"Will you be mine?" he whispered.

She was transported in her old heart by the lofty figure with the waving plumes. She forgot that she needed to live a year yet.

"I am ready," she whispered.

"Then I will come and fetch you in a week at your father's house."

He bent down and kissed her, and then he vanished; she began to shiver and tremble under Death's kiss.

A little later Mamsell Fredrika sat in the church, in the same place where she had sat as a child. Here she forgot both the knight and the ghosts, and sat smiling in quiet delight at the thought of the revelation of the glory of God.

But either she was tired because she had not slept the whole night, or the warmth and the closeness and the smell of the candles had a soporific effect on her as on many another.

She fell asleep, only for a second; she absolutely could not help it.

Perhaps, too, God wished to open to her the gates of the land of dreams.

In that single second when she slept, she saw her stern father, her lovely, beautifully-dressed mother, and the ugly, little Petrea sitting in the church. And the soul of the child

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was compressed by an anguish greater than has ever been felt by a grown person. The priest stood in the pulpit and spoke of the stern, avenging God, and the child sat pale and trembling, as if the words had been axe-blows and had gone through its heart.

"Oh, what a God, what a terrible God."

In the next second she was awake, but she trembled and shuddered, as after the kiss of death on the church road. Her heart was once more caught in the wild grief of her childhood.

She wished to hurry from the church. She must go home and write her book, her glorious book on the God of peace and love.

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Nothing else that can be deemed worth mentioning happened to Mamsell Fredrika before New Year's night. Life and death, like day and night, reigned in quiet concord over the earth during the last week of the year, but when New Year's night came, Death took his scepter and announced that now old Mamsell Fredrika should belong to him.

Had they but known it, all the people of Sweden would certainly have prayed a common prayer to God to be allowed to keep their purest spirit, their warmest heart. Many homes in many lands where she had left loving hearts would have watched with despair and grief. The poor, the sick and the needy would have forgotten their own wants to remember hers, and all the children who had grown up blessing her would have clasped their hands to pray for one more year for their best friend. One year, that she might make all fully clear and put the finishing touch on her life's work.

For Death was too prompt for Mamsell Fredrika.

There was a storm outside on that New Year's night; there was a storm within her soul. She felt all the agony of life and death coming to a crisis.

"Anguish!" she sighed, "anguish!"

But the anguish gave way, and peace came, and she whispered softly: "The love of Christ—the best love—the peace of God—the everlasting light!"

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Yes, that was what she would have written in her book, a perhaps much else as beautiful and wonderful. Who knows? Only one thing we know, that books are forgotten, but such a life as hers never is.

The old prophetess's eyes closed and she sank into visions.

Her body struggled with death, but she did not know it. Her family sat weeping about her deathbed, but she did not see them. Her spirit had begun its flight.

Dreams became reality to her and reality dreams. Now she stood, as she had already seen herself in the visions of her youth, waiting at the gates of heaven with innumerable hosts of the dead round about her. And heaven opened. He, the only one, the Saviour, stood in its open gates. And his infinite love woke in the waiting spirits and in her a longing to fly to his embrace, and their longing lifted them and her, and they floated as if on wings upwards, upwards.

The next day there was mourning in the land; mourning in wide parts of the earth.

*Fredrika Bremer was dead.*

# The Vesper Hour*

Conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent

## The Awakening of the Soul

By Maurice Maeterlinck

A time will come, perhaps—and many things there are that herald its approach—a time will come perhaps when our souls will know of each other without the intermediary of the senses. Certain it is that there passes not a day but the soul adds to its ever-widening domain. It is very much nearer to our visible self, and takes a far greater

*These extracts are taken from "The Treasure of the Humble," by Maurice Maeterlinck, a volume of essays by the well known Belgian dramatist and philosopher. The English translation is published by Dodd, Mead and Co.: New York. 1907.

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part in all our actions, than was the case two or three centuries ago. A spiritual epoch is perhaps upon us; an epoch to which a certain number of analogies are found in history. For there are periods recorded, when the soul, in obedience to unknown laws seemed to rise to the very surface of humanity, whence it gave clearest evidence of its existence and of its power. And this existence and this power reveal themselves in countless ways, diverse and unforseen. It would seem, at moments such as these, as though humanity were on the point of struggling from beneath the crushing burden of matter that weighs it down. A spiritual influence is abroad that soothes and comforts; and the sternest, direst laws of Nature yield here and there. Men are nearer to themselves, nearer to their brothers; in the look of their eyes, in the love of their hearts, there is deeper earnestness and tenderer fellowship. Their understanding of women, children, animals, plants—nay, of all things—becomes more pitiful and more profound. The statues, paintings and writings that these men have left us may perhaps not be perfect, but, none the less does there dwell therein a secret power, an indescribable grace, held captive and imperishable for ever. A mysterious brotherhood and love must have shone forth from the eyes of these men; and signs of a life that we cannot explain are everywhere, vibrating by the side of the life of every day.

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Truly there are centuries in which the soul lies dormant and slumbers undisturbed.

But today it is clearly making a mighty effort. Its manifestations are everywhere, and they are strangely urgent, pressing, imperious even, as though the order had been given, and no time must be lost. It must be preparing for a decisive struggle; and none can foretell the issues that may be dependent on the result, be this victory or flight. Perhaps never to this day has it enlisted in its service such diverse, irresistible forces. It is as though an invisible wall hemmed it in, and one knows not whether it be quivering in its deathrob or quickened by a new life. I will say nothing of the

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occult powers, of which signs are everywhere—of magnetism, telepathy, levitation, the unsuspected properties of radiating matter, and countless other phenomena that are battering down the door of orthodox science. These things are known of all men, and can easily be verified. And truly they may well be the merest bagatelle by the side of the vast upheaval that is actually in progress, for the soul is like a dreamer, enthralled by sleep, who struggles with all his might to move an arm or raise an eyelid.

Other regions there are where its action is even more effective, though the crowd there is less regardful, and none but trained eyes can see. Does it not seem as though the supreme cry of the soul were at last about to pierce the dense clouds of error that still envelop it in music? Do not certain pictures by foreign painters reveal the sacred majesty of an invisible presence, as it never has been revealed before? Are there not masterpieces in literature that are illumined by a flame which differs in its very essence from the strangest beacon-fires that lit up the writings of bygone days? A transformation of silence—strange and inexplicable—is upon us, and the reign of the *positive sublime*, absolute to this day, seems destined to be overthrown. I will not linger on this subject, for the time has not yet come for lucid discussion of these things; but I feel that a more pressing offer of spiritual freedom has rarely been made to mankind. Nay, there are moments when it bears the semblance of an ultimatum; and therefore does it behoove us to neglect nothing, but indeed with all eagerness to accept this imperious invitation, that is like unto the dream that is lost forever, unless instantaneously seized. We must be heedful; it is not without fit reason that our soul bestirs herself.

Though it be perhaps from the table-lands of speculative thought that this agitation is most clearly to be noted, yet may there well be signs of it in the most ordinary paths of life, unsuspected of any; for not a flower opens on the hill-top but at length it falls into the valley. Has it fallen already? I know not. But this much at least is abundantly proved to us, that in the work-a-day lives of the humblest of

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men, spiritual phenomena manifest themselves—mysterious, direct workings, that bring soul nearer to soul; and of all this we can find no record in former times. And the reason must surely be that these things were not so clearly evident then: for at every period there have been men who penetrated to the innermost recesses of life, to its most secret affinities: and all that they learned of the heart, the soul and the spirit of their epoch has been handed down to us. It may well be that similar influences were at work even in those times; but they could not have been as universal, as active and vigorous as they are today, nor could they have sunk so deep into the very life-springs of the race; for in that case, they had surely not escaped the notice of those sages, and been passed by in silence. And I do not refer now to "scientific spiritism," or its telepathic phenomena, to "materialization," or other manifestations that I have enumerated above: but to the incidents, the interventions, that occur unceasingly in the dreariest lives of all, those of the men who are the most forgetful of their eternal rights. Also must it be borne in mind that we are not considering the ordinary text-book psychology—which concerns itself only with such spiritual phenomena as are the most closely interwoven with the material, having indeed usurped the beautiful name of Psyche—the psychology of which I speak is transcendental, and throws light on the direct relationship that exists between soul and soul, and on the *sensibility* as well as the *extraordinary presence* of the soul. It is a science that is in its infancy; but by it shall we be taken a full step higher, and very speedily shall it dismiss forever the elementary psychology that has been dominant to this day.

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These spiritual phenomena, to which, in bygone days, even the greatest and wisest of our brothers scarcely gave a thought, are today being earnestly studied by the very smallest; and herein we are shown once again that the human soul is a plant of matchless unity, whose branches, when the hour is come, all burst into blossom together. The peasant, to whom the power of expressing that which lies

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in his soul should suddenly be given, would at this moment pour forth ideas that were not yet in the soul of Racine. And thus it is that men of a genius much inferior to that of Shakespeare or Racine have yet had revealed to them glimpses of a secretly luminous life, whose outer crust, alone, had come within the ken of those masters. For, however great the soul, it avails not that it should wander in isolation through space or time. Unaided, it can do but little. It is the flower of the multitude. When the spiritual sea is storm-tossed, and its whole surface restless and troubled, then is the moment ripe for the mighty soul to appear; but if it come at time of slumber, its utterance will be but of the dreams of sleep.

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Is it thoroughly clear to you—this is one of the strangest, most disquieting of truths—is it thoroughly clear to you that, if there be evil in your heart, your mere presence will probably proclaim it today a hundred times more clearly than would have been the case two or three centuries ago? Is it fully borne home to you that if you have perchance this morning done anything that shall have brought sadness to a single human being, the peasant, with whom you are about to talk of the rain or the storm, will know of it—his soul will have been warned even before his hand has thrown open the door? Though you assume the face of a saint, a hero or a martyr, the eye of the passing child will not greet you with the same unapproachable smile if there lurk within you an evil thought, an injustice or a brother's tears. A hundred years ago the soul of that child would perhaps have passed, unheeding, by the side of yours.

Truly it is becoming difficult to cherish hatred, envy, or treachery in one's heart, secure from observation; for the souls even of the most indifferent are incessantly keeping vigil around us. Our ancestors have not spoken of these things, and we realize that the life in which we bestir ourselves is quite other than that which they have depicted. Have they deceived us, or did they not know? Signs and

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words no longer count for anything, and in mystic circles it is the mere presence that decides almost all.

Even the ancient "will-power"—the logical will-power that men have professed to understand so well—even this is being transformed in its turn, and moulded beneath the pressure of mighty, deep searching, inexplicable laws. The last refuges are disappearing, and men are drawing closer to each other. Far above words and acts do they judge their fellows—nay, far above thought—for that which they see, though they understand it not, lies well beyond the domain of thought. And this is one of the great signs by which the spiritual periods I spoke of before shall be known. It is felt on all sides that the conditions of work-a-day life are changing, and the youngest of us already differ entirely in speech and action from the men of the preceding generation. A mass of useless conventions, habits, pretences, and intermediaries are being swept into the gulf; and it is by the invisible alone that, though we know it not, nearly all of us judge each other. If I enter your room for the first time you will not pronounce the secret sentence that, according to the laws of practical psychology, each man pronounces in the presence of his fellow. In vain shall you try to tell me whither you have been to learn who I am, but you shall come back to me, bearing the weight of unspeakable certitudes. Your father, perhaps, would have judged me otherwise, and would have been mistaken. We can but believe that man will soon touch man, and that the atmosphere will change. "Have we," asks Claude de Saint-Martin, the great "unknown philosopher," "have we advanced one step further on the radiant path of enlightenment, that leads to the simplicity of men? Let us wait in silence: perhaps ere long we shall be conscious of 'the murmur of the gods.'"

## FROM "THE DEEPER LIFE."

It is well that men should be reminded that the very humblest of them has the power to "fashion, after a divine model that he chooses not, a great moral personality composed in equal parts of himself and the ideal; and that if

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anything lives in fullest reality, of a surety it is that."

Each man has to seek out his own special aptitude for a higher life in the midst of the humble and inevitable reality of daily existence. Than this there can be no nobler aim in life. It is only by the communications we have with the infinite that we are to be distinguished from each other. If the hero is greater than the wretch who marches by his side, it is because at a certain moment of his existence there has come to him a fuller consciousness of one of these communications. If it is true that creation does not stop at man and that we are surrounded by invisible beings who are superior to us, their superiority can only consist in that they have, with the infinite, communications whose nature we cannot even imagine.

It lies within our power to increase these communications. In the life of every man has there been a day when the heavens opened of their own accord, and it is almost always from that very instant that dates his true spiritual personality. It is doubtless at that instant that are formed the invisible, eternal features that we reveal, though we know it not, to angels and to souls. But with most men it is chance alone that angels know them in the infinite, nor have they understood how to ennoble and purify its features—which do indeed but owe their being to an accidental joy or sadness, an accidental thought or fear. Our veritable birth dates from the day when, for the first time, we feel at the deepest of us that there is something grave and unexpected in life. Some there are who realize suddenly that they are not alone under the sky. To others will it be brusquely revealed, while shedding a tear or giving a kiss, that "the source of all that is good and holy from the universe up to God is hidden behind a night, full of too distant stars;" a third will see a divine hand stretched forth between his joy and his misfortune; and yet another will have misunderstood that it is the dead who are in the right. One will have had pity, another will have admired or been afraid. Often does it need almost nothing, a word, a gesture, a little thing that is not even a thought. "Before

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I loved thee as a brother, John," says one of Shakespeare's heroes, admiring the other's action, "but now I do respect thee as my soul." On that day it is probable that a being will have come into the world.

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For what are in reality the things we call "Wisdom," "Virtue," "Heroism," "sublime hours," and "great moments of life," but the moments when we have more or less issued forth from ourselves, and have been able to halt, be it only for an instant, on the step of one of the eternal gates whence we see that the faintest cry, the most colorless thought, and most nerveless gestures do not drop into nothingness; or that if they do indeed thus drop, the fall itself is so immense that it suffices to give an august character to our life? Why wait till the firmament shall open amid the roar of the thunderbolt? We must watch for the happy moments when it opens in silence; and it is ever thus opening. You seek God in your life, and you say God appears not. But in what life are there not thousands of hours akin to the hour of that drama where all are waiting for the divine intervention, and none perceive it, till an invisible thought that has flitted across the consciousness of a dying man suddenly reveals itself, and an old man cries out, sobbing for joy and terror, "But God, there is God!"

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# The Future of War

## A Review of the Work of Jean de Bloch

JEAN DE BLOCH, the author of the epoch-making work "The Future of War," was for many years a well-known banker in Moscow and an organizer of industry. At various times he performed valuable services for the Russian government, his activities thus familiarizing him with the larger aspects of political and economic problems. Becoming deeply interested in these he finally retired from active life to devote himself to the study of economics, particularly to the question of the economic results of international warfare. The conclusions at which he arrived in the study of so great a problem were presented in a monumental work of six volumes entitled "The Future of War." In this he stated his belief that war was rapidly becoming, if it had not already actually become, impossible. His exact meaning in such a statement of his conclusions is best conveyed by a conversation between him and W. T. Stead, the editor of the English *Review of Reviews,* in the course of which he summarized the results of the study which he had formulated at great length in his book. A portion of this conversation follows:

"Utopians," said Mr. Bloch; "and they call us Utopians, idealists, visionaries, because we believe that the end of war is in sight? But who are the Utopians, I should like to know. What is a Utopian, using the term as an epithet of opprobrium? He is a man who lives in a dream of the impossible; but what I know and am prepared to prove is, that the real Utopians who are living in a veritable realm of phantasy are those people who believe in war. War has been possible, no doubt, but it has at last become impossible, and those who are preparing for war, are visionaries of the worst kind, for war is no longer possible."

"That is good news, M. Bloch," replied Mr. Stead, "but is it not somewhat of a paradox? Only last year [1898] we had the Spanish-American War; the year before, the war between Turkey and Greece. Since when has war become impossible?"

"Oh, replied M. Bloch, with vivacity, "I do not speak of such wars. It is not to such frontier brawls, or primitive



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operations such as you in England, for instance, are perpetually engaging in on the frontiers of your extended empire, that I refer when I say that war has become impossible. When soldiers and statesmen speak about the War of the Future, they do not refer to such trumpery expeditions against semi-barbarous peoples. The war of the future, the war which has become impossible, is the war that has haunted the imagination of mankind for the last thirty years, the war in which great nations armed to the teeth were to fling themselves with all their resources into a struggle for life and death. This is the war that every day becomes more and more impossible. Yet it is in preparations against that impossible war that these so-called practical men, who are the real Utopians of our time, are wasting the resources of civilization."

"Pray explain yourself more clearly, M. Bloch."

"Well," said he, "I suppose you will admit that war has practically become impossible for the minor States. It is as impossible for Denmark or for Belgium to make war today as it would be for you or for me to assert the right of private war, which our forefathers possessed. We cannot do it. At least, we could only try to do it, and then be summarily suppressed and punished for our temerity. That is the position of the minor States. For them war is practically forbidden by their stronger neighbors. They are in the position of the descendants of the feudal lords, whose right of levying war has vanished owing to the growth of a strong central power whose interests and authority are incompatible with the exercise of what used to be at one time an almost universal right. For the minor States, therefore, war is impossible."

"Admitted," replied Mr. Stead. "Impossible, that is to say, without the leave and license of the great Powers."

"Precisely," said M. Bloch; "and hence, when we discuss the question of future war, we always deal with it as a war between great Powers. That is to say, primarily, the long-talked-of, constantly postponed war between France and Germany for the lost provinces; and, secondly, that other war, the thought of which has gradually replaced that of the single-handed duel between France and Germany, viz., a war between the Triplice and the Franco-Russian Alliance. It is that war which constantly preoccupies the minds of statesmen and sovereigns of Europe, and it is that war which, I maintain, has become absolutely impossible."

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"But how impossible, M. Bloch? Do you mean morally impossible?"

"No such thing," he replied. "I am dealing not with moral considerations, which cannot be measured, but with hard, matter-of-fact, material things, which can be estimated and measured with some approximation to absolute accuracy. I maintain that war has become impossible alike from a military, economic, and political point of view. The very development that has taken place in the mechanism of war has rendered war an impracticable operation. The dimensions of modern armaments and the organization of society have rendered its prosecution an economic impossibility; and, finally, that if any attempt were made to demonstrate the inaccuracy of my assertions by putting the matter to a test on a great scale, we should find the inevitable result in a catastrophe which would destroy all existing political organization. Thus, the great war cannot be made, and any attempt to make it would result in suicide. Such, I believe, is the simple demonstrable fact."

"But where is the demonstration?"

M. Bloch turned and pointed to his encyclopedic work upon "The Future of War," six solid volumes, each containing I do not know how many quarto pages, which stood piled one above the other.

"Read that," he said. "In that book you will find the facts upon which my demonstration rests."

"That is all very well, but how can you, M. Bloch, an economist and a banker, set yourself up as an authority upon military matters?"

"Oh," said M. Bloch, "you have a saying that it is often the outsider that sees most; and you must remember that the conclusions arrived at by military experts are by no means inaccessible to the general student. In order to form a correct idea as to the changes that have taken place in the mechanism of war, it is quite conceivable that the bystander who is not engaged in the actual carrying out of the evolution now in progress may be better able to see the drift and tendency of things than those who are busily engaged in the actual detail of the operation. I can only say that while at first hand I have no authority whatever, and do not in any way pose as a military or naval expert, I have taken all imaginable pains in order to master the literature of warfare, especially the most recent treatises upon military operations and the handling of armies and fleets, which have been published by the leading military authorities in the

modern world. After mastering what they have written, I have had opportunities of discussing personally with many officers in all countries as to the conclusions at which I have arrived, and I am glad to know that in the main there is not much difference of opinion as to the accuracy of my general conclusions as to the nature of the future warfare."

"But do they also agree with you that war has become impossible?"

"No," said M. Bloch, "that would be too much to expect. Otherwise Othello's occupation would be gone. But as they have admitted the facts, we can draw our own conclusions."

"But I see in your book you deal with every branch of the service, armaments of all kind, manœuvres, questions of strategy, problems of fortification—everything, in fact, that comes into the consideration of the actual conduct of modern war. Do you mean to tell me that military men generally think you have made no mistakes?"

"That would be saying too much. The book was referred by the Emperor of Russia at my request to the Minister of War, with a request that it should be subjected to examination by a council of experts. The results of that council were subsequently communicated to the Emperor in the shape of a report, which set forth that while in dealing with so many questions it was impossible to avoid some mistakes, it was their opinion that the book was a very useful one, and that it was most desirable that it should be placed in the hands of all staff officers. They also added an expression of opinion that no book could contribute so much to the success of the Conference or to the information of those who were to take part in its deliberations.

"The one question upon which strong difference of opinion existed was that concerning the use of the bayonet. I have arrived at the conclusion, based upon a very careful examination of various authorities, that the day of the bayonet is over. In the Franco-German war the total mortality of the Germans from cold steel amounted to only one per cent. The proportion on the French side was higher, but I think it can be mathematically demonstrated that, in future, war will be decided at ranges which will render the use of the bayonet impossible. General Dragomiroff, however, a veteran of the old school, cannot tolerate this slight upon his favorite weapon. In his eyes the bayonet is supreme, and it is cold steel which at the last will always be the deciding factor in the combats of peoples. He therefore

strongly condemns that portion of my book; but it stands on its own merits, and the reader can form his own judgment as to the probability of the bayonet being of any practical use in future war.

"The bayonet seems to me altogether out of date. No doubt is is a deadly enough weapon, if you can get within a yard of your enemy; but the problem that I have been asking myself is whether, in future, combatants will ever be able to get within one hundred yards of one another let alone one yard."

"But then," rejoined Mr. Stead, "if that be so, wars will be much less deadly than they were before."

"Yes and no," said M. Bloch; "they will become less deadly because they have become more deadly. There is no kind of warfare so destructive of human life as that in which you have bodies of men face to face with each other, with nothing but cold steel to settle the issue. The slaughter which took place in the old wars between barbarians or between the Romans and the barbarian tribes on the frontiers was simply appalling. There is nothing like it in modern warfare, and this diminution of the mortality in battle has been, paradoxically enough, produced by the improved deadliness of the weapons with which men fight. They are, indeed, becoming so deadly that before long you will see they will never fight at all."

"That," replied Mr. Stead, "was the faith of Rudyard Kipling, who wrote me a few months ago saying that he relied for the extinction of war upon the invention of a machine which would infallibly slay fifty per cent. of the combatants whenever battle was waged. 'Then,' he said, 'war would cease of itself.' The same idea was expressed by Lord Lytton in his novel of 'The Coming Race,' in which he attributed the final disappearance of war from the planet to the discovery of vril, a destructive so deadly that an army could be annihilated by the touch of a button by the finger of a child."

"Yes," said M. Bloch, "that is so; but until mankind has made experience of the deadliness of its weapons, there will be terrible bloodshed. For instance, at Omdurman the destruction inflicted upon the forces of the Khalifa came very near the fifty per cent. standard of Rudyard Kipling. That one experience was probably sufficient even for the Dervishes. They will never again face the fire of modern rifles. The experience which they have learned is rapidly becoming generalized throughout the armies of Christendom,

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and although there may be some frightful scenes of wholesale slaughter, one or two experiences of that kind will rid our military authorities of any desire to come to close quarters with their adversaries."

"What a paradox it is!" replied Mr. Stead. "We shall end by killing nobody, because if we fought at all we should kill everybody. Then you do not anticipate increased slaughter as the result of the increased precision in weapons?"

"You mistake me," said M. Bloch. "At first there will be increased slaughter—increased slaughter on so terrible a scale as to render it impossible to get troops to push the battle to a decisive issue. They will try to, thinking that they are fighting under the old conditions, and they will learn such a lesson that they will abandon the attempt forever. Then instead of a war fought out to the bitter end in a series of decisive battles, we shall have as a substitute a long period of continually increasing strain upon the resources of the combatants. The war, instead of being a hand-to-hand contest in which the combatants measure their physical and moral superiority, will become a kind of stalemate, in which neither army being able to get at the other, both armies will be maintained in opposition to each other, threatening each other, but never being able to deliver a final and decisive attack. It will be simply the natural evolution of the armed peace, on an aggravated scale.

"Yes," continued M. Bloch, "accompanied by entire dislocation of all industry and severing of all the sources of supply by which alone the community is enabled to bear the crushing burden of that armed peace. It will be a multiplication of expenditure simultaneously accompanied by a diminution of the sources by which that expenditure can be met. That is the future of war—not fighting, but famine; not the slaying of men, but the bankruptcy of nations and the break-up of the whole social organization."

"Now I begin to perceive how it is that we have as a prophet of the end of war a political economist, and not a soldier."

"Yes," said M. Bloch, "it is as a political economist that I discovered the open secret which he who runs may read. The soldier by natural evolution has so perfected the mechanism of slaughter that he has practically secured his own extinction. He has made himself so costly that mankind can no longer afford to pay for his maintenance, and he has therefore transferred the sceptre of the world from

those who govern its camps to those who control its markets."

M. de Bloch's book is an elaboration and exposition of the points thus briefly outlined. First he considers the warfare of the future from a purely military standpoint, discussing the changes which the invention of modern high power arms and smokeless powder will introduce not only in the tactics of warfare, but, as well, in the casualties of battle. Thus the modern rifle has a far greater range and power of penetration than the rifles of a generation ago, and improvements are being constantly made. The tendency is decidedly toward a small calibre rifle throwing a light steel-jacketed bullet of high penetration and extraordinary range. The weight of the projectile is a highly important question, for with the modern arm a soldier is enabled to carry several times the number of cartridges possible even in so recent a war as that of 1870 between France and Germany. Moreover, the rapidity of fire has been greatly improved and the execution of the individual soldier increased in like proportion.

Smokeless powder introduces another factor unknown in the great wars of the past. A sharpshooter under modern conditions may, from some point of vantage, pick off the enemy's forces at great distances and himself remain undetected, inasmuch as no telltale smoke will reveal his whereabouts. The truth of this statement is borne out by the experiences of the Anglo-Boer War.

Improvements in artillery have kept pace with the evolution of small arms. Rapid fire ordnance of extreme deadliness has virtually eliminated the old time picturesque charge. It will no longer be possible for massed men to storm entrenched field guns, for they would soon be exterminated in so doing. War must be conducted from entrenchments pushed forward slowly and with great labor. This conclusion is borne out by the siege of Port Arthur.

Moreover the new artillery can carry on an accurate fire at great distances. An invisible battery miles away will drop shells into the midst of an attacking force and do tre-

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mendous execution. And to this devastation adequate return can be made only in extremely fortunate cases, the advantage lying always with the defensive force.

M. de Bloch very subtly discusses the psychology of this kind of warfare. The nervous strain is bound to be so great as to be almost unendurable. The noiseless, smokeless fire of an invisible enemy mowing down troops in companies will put a strain upon the modern army which may sap it of all courage and lead to a disorganization fatal to any success.

That the warfare of the future will of necessity be waged from fortresses and intrenchments involves certain other considerations which tend to support M. de Bloch's contention that wars between anything like equal forces must end in a draw in which neither party gains his object. Modern invention has reduced the science of fortification almost to perfection. An attacking force must greatly outnumber the besieged to have any hope of capturing a well fortified position and even then much time must be taken. If, then, a war is but a succession of sieges extending over a vast territory and occupying much time what decisive result may the attacking force ever hope to attain. Fatalities will be excessive, the nervous strain unbearable, and the financial cost so vast as to exhaust the most prosperous nation. Will not the conclusion be the exhaustion of both forces, a truce, and no real gain to either party? Many well qualified observers, it is interesting to note, believe this to have been the result of the Russo-Japanese War. That conflict cost immensely in life, left both nations almost bankrupt, and, it is said, resulted in no great gain for Japan. The underlying problems remain undecided and after a few years will again press for solution.

But the strictly military aspect of war is to M. de Bloch only a small part of the problem. The social and economic consequences of a European war hold for him the most interesting speculations. How may a modern industrial nation support a vast army in the field? Will not the withdrawal of millions of workers derange the industrial mechanism to such an extent that the maintenance of the army

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and of internal order will be after a short time impossible. Such M. de Bloch conceives to be the economic condition which will be produced in most of the European countries by a serious conflict. In some, indeed, there will be actual danger of starvation, for only a few countries produce all the food-stuffs needed for consumption within their own borders. Russia, a wheat exporting nation, would be in somewhat better case as regards food alone.

That besides the danger of famine with the resultant consequences of anarchistic uprisings, a nation will almost inevitably face bankruptcy when put to the strain of maintaining a vast army in a protracted war is another conclusion at which the Russian banker arrived after a careful study of history and contemporary finance. After pointing out the cost of various great wars of the past with the stupendous burdens then imposed he draws an even darker picture of future warfare. Conditions must inevitably become worse when nations become more and more financially interdependent, as, in modern industry based upon credit, they are bound to be. Stagnation of industry, paralysis of transportation, and diminished borrowing power in the face of the enormous expenses entailed by scientific warfare—all will bring the most warlike of nations to terms after no great experience of the folly of modern conflict.

These are but a few of the great problems treated exhaustively by M. de Bloch in his thorough-going work. His judgment seems largely supported by the results of the only wars of consequence since its publication. The Anglo-Boer War showed the tremendous advantages possessed by a defensive force even when attacked by an opponent of vastly greater resources. A prolonged struggle costing England immense treasure and loss of life was necessary before the small force of Boers could be subdued. The Russo-Japanese War accomplished little and exhausted both parties to the struggle, entailing burdens which will weigh not only upon this generation, but upon subsequent generations. From these conflicts some idea may be formed of the consequences

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of a war such as that often threatened between France and Germany.

But though M. de Bloch's conclusions seem incontrovertible a campaign of education must ensue before they are accepted by modern military powers. It is not yet impossible for such a nation as Germany to attempt suicide by provoking a war which, too late, shall prove the Russian economist's analysis to be correct. Only by education and the fostering of the peace spirit may so fatal a test be averted.

# Versailles and the Trianons

By Edwina Spencer

THE beauty and magnificence that once glorified the great palace of Versailles, in the environs of Paris, have vanished like the orange blossoms of Louis XIV with which its gorgeous rooms were continually fragrant. Versailles is now an immense National Museum; sightseers crowd its stairways and its long galleries of historical paintings. Yet the exterior, stretching its imposing length in front of the formal gardens, looks much as it did in the days of the "Grand Monarch," when this spot of earth was the center of France, and housed a court so brilliant that in manners and morals, politics and art, it dominated the whole of Europe.

In spite of the Revolution, the Commune and the Republic, Versailles still stands to the student of history for the incarnation of the pomp and pride of ancient monarchy, —of the monarchy which created it and filled it with ineffaceable memories. Yet more than a century has passed since its final abandonment by the old régime, on that fateful day in 1789 when the Revolutionary mob compelled Louis XVI and his family to leave the palace for Paris, whence they were never to return.

That day saw the first of many changes. The royal furniture was sold, and the pictures transferred to the Louvre,

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leaving its hundreds of rooms empty and deserted. Though Napoleon dreamed of living there, he never did so, and only the efforts of Louis Phillipe saved the building from being sold. He it was who conceived the idea of establishing there a historical museum, and by making large contributions from his private fortune, he succeeded in accomplishing it, himself solemnly inaugurating its new condition in 1837. An active search was made in the royal residences, in the storehouses of Louvre, and in every quarter where they lay forgotten, for works of art illustrating the history of France, and to these were added paintings by modern artists which bring the story down to our own time. Here the patriotic Frenchman may review the glories of his country since the days of Joan of Arc, passing through corridors of pictures illustrating the sequence of military campaigns and of historic events. There are collections of invaluable portraits of French royalty, of the Marshals and Admirals of France, and of other illustrious men, which make the Versailles of today a great school of popular patriotism.

For the origin of this historic pile, which represents so much in the past of France and indeed of Europe, we must go back to an April day in 1651 when the little Louis XVI, accompanied by a crowd of courtiers, paid his first visit to the spot where then there stood only a hunting lodge built by his royal father. Though the boy was only thirteen, he had been for eight years King of France, and his astonishing force of character was already apparent. During the next ten years he came often to Versailles, and finally began giving there a succession of magnificent fêtés. Meantime he had formulated definitely his policy for developing his power into supreme despotism,—a policy which rose from his implicit belief that he ruled by divine right, and his complete confidence in his infallibility as ruler. Deciding to create a new court center, outside Paris, where he could so concentrate the social and political life of France as to subdue and dominate the unruly nobles, he chose Versailles; and leaving the old hunting-lodge of Louis XIII intact, set about surrounding it with new and splendid buildings. He

Portrait of Louis XVI, by Callet, at Versailles.

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Portrait of Madame Vigée-Lebrun by her friend, Madame Tripier-Lefranc. Now at Versailles.

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The Exquisite "Temple of Love" in the Garden of the Little Trianon.

The so-called "Baths of Apollo," at Versailles.

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Portrait of Napoleon's Son, Napoleon Francis Charles Joseph, the little "King of Rome;" painted by Gerard in 1832, at Versailles.

Portrait of Louis XVII, the little Dauphin, Son of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette. Pastel by Mme. Vigée-Lebrun. At Versailles.

visited the place every week to watch the progress of the work, finally becoming so impatient to occupy it that he moved the entire court there while thirty-six thousand men and six thousand horses were still at work on the palace and its gardens.

Louis thus established an imposing seat of government within the walls of his own palace, and in addition provided permanent residence for the entire court, surrounded with every luxury and every artistic pleasure which even that luxurious age could demand. The palace accommodated ten thousand people; its front which was nearly two thousand feet long had three hundred and seventy-five windows. Its construction gave employment to a small army of workmen; and the decoration of the interior occupied another army of painters, sculptors, workers in marble and bronze, gilders, locksmiths, and cabinet makers. The immense sums of money expended upon it during Louis' long

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reign* have been severely criticised, but it should be remembered that the Grand Monarch made Versailles the center of French art-production, and that the work done here played a most important part in the development of the arts in every form,—establishing the supremacy of French painting, sculpture, and architecture throughout Europe.

From his installation there in 1682 until his death in 1715, Louis XVI maintained at Versailles the most important court of Europe,—the marvel and model of contemporary monarchs. To the last degree imposing in manner and appearance, he magnificently played his part as the most conspicuous figure of his epoch; and was hailed as the "Sun-King," whose glory was like that of the orb of day,—illumining with the same effulgence the social world of the period. His emblem of the rising sun was blazoned throughout the palace; but more vivid than any symbol is the memory of his tremendous personality that haunts its empty halls. Though changes have been made in the palace interior, its central portion, devoted to his use, remains practically the same; his balcony still overlooks the Marble Court where Molière's plays were given and so many of the King's fêtes were held. Here Louis lived and worked; here the nobility came and went in sumptuous sedan-chairs and gilded carriages, while the whole bright pageant of splendid costumes, rich uniforms, and glittering liveries filled the court yard with color and gaiety.

For Louis XIV thoroughly appreciated the dazzling effect of gorgeous functionaries, elaborate ceremonies, and formal etiquette,—of the opulent splendor that was his expression of majesty. His military household was composed of both cavalry and infantry, peculiarly superb in their equipment, while his person was protected by hundreds of guardsmen picked from the chivalry of France. Every

*The cost of preparing the site, building and decorating the palace, and laying out the parks and gardens was, in round numbers, $100,000,000; and its annual maintenance cost $580,000. The total expense for all the work carried on during Louis' entire reign of seventy-two years was about $300,000,000. The present cost of maintenance, with the gardens and fountains, is about $125,000.

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mythological reference in painting and sculpture lauded his greatness; and the allegorical frescoes celebrating his victories show us that "Mars, Mercury, and Apollo had had their day, and there was no god but Louis, dominant and triumphant."

The famous "Galerie des Glaces,"* or gallery of mirrors, the ball-room of Versailles, is most typical of his taste. It is a great hall two hundred and forty feet long, thirty-five feet wide and forty-two high, lavishly embellished by the best known painters, sculptors, and decorators of the day. Seventeen large arched windows command a fine view of the garden, and opposite each is a great Venetian mirror of bevelled glass set in a sculptured frame. The walls are faced with marbles, covered with gilded trophies, and statues in niches; the great vaulted ceiling is filled with a series of frescoes representing Louis' triumphs in the wars against Germany, Holland, and Spain. As we cross today the highly waxed floor of the empty room, it is hard to realize the brilliance of the place during the great state assemblages of the Grand Monarch, when from sixteen great silver chandeliers and innumerable crystal and silver candelabra, the light of four thousand wax candles shone upon furniture of massive carved silver and silver-gilt,—with flower baskets, punch bowls, and every appointment of the same precious metal. Set in silver tubs, blooming orange trees filled the air with fragrance, the hangings of velvet and gold, the brilliant costumes, reflected in the long mirrors, the sound of music and the radiant presence of the Sun-King made these occasions veritable scenes of enchantment. In this wonderful room, a hundred memories of joy and sorrow crowd the mind. The shades of great men and famous beauties pass before us, and after them come the terrible associations of the Revolution; finally in 1871, we find the wounded Prussians carried here for succor, and in this hall, decorated with pictures of German defeat at the hands of France, we see the conquering William II proclaimed Ger-

*The architect who planned this room was J. H. Mansart (or Mansard), the originator of the "Mansard roof."

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man Emperor, thus restoring that Teutonic Empire which France had taken centuries to destroy.

Of old the great throne-room was no less gorgeous, hung in crimson and gold, with a Persian carpet upon which stood the silver throne eight feet high, which has since disappeared. As we go further into the state apartments, we pass through billiard-rooms, card-rooms, and the small rooms which contained the King's collections of agates, of clocks, of jewels, medals, and paintings; bath-rooms of great luxury, lined with all sorts of French marbles; wardrobe rooms, where were kept at work valets, tailors, hosiers, and boot-makers; the King's wig-room, where his wigs stood ready in glass cases. Here the shopkeepers flocked into the corridors to sell their goods to the courtiers; and below stairs a world in itself attended to the important matters of the King's kitchen. Butlers, controllers, head-cooks, under-cooks, turn-spits, cellarers, common-gardeners, salad gardeners, porters, laundrymen, and a host of others came and went.

The King's bed chamber where he ended his long reign of seventy-two years, retains practically the original decoration and furniture, with the richly adorned bed upon which he died. Nearby is the Queen's bed-chamber, a room full of historical interest, for here two Queens and two Dauphinesses passed out of the world, and nineteen Royal Princes entered it, among which were two Kings. For more than a century this room beheld supreme joys and sorrows; its last occupant was the pathetic Queen Marie Antoinette, who was sleeping here when awakened by the mob which drove her forth to final humiliation and death. Outside the principal entrance to this room her body-guard were assassinated in trying to defend her, while by another small door she escaped to the King's apartments.

Next to the picturesque memory of its royal founder, that of Marie Antoinette is the the most vivid ghost which haunts Versailles. Here in the home which sheltered her joys and sorrows we seem to feel her very presence, especially in that suite of tiny rooms—ante-chamber, boudoir,

library, music-room, and drawing-room—which were her private apartments, and which remain almost as she left them, charming in their dainty decoration and intimately appealing. Portraits of her husband, several of herself by Madame Lebrun, and the beautiful child-face of her little son, the unhappy Dauphin, look down upon us in various rooms of the palace; we find her jewel-casket, and the gift presented to her by the women of Paris upon the birth of the royal heir; even her mirror remains to suggest the bright young Queen it so often reflected.

Versailles teems with other associations, like those of the reign of Louis XV, when vice and purposeless extravagance hastened the terrible days of the Revolution, and the figures of Madame Pompadour and Madam Du Barry loom large in the foreground. And even the briefest sketch is not complete without mention of its famous gardens, as remarkable in their formal elaboration as the palace itself, and its fountains which all Paris still flocks to see, whenever the waters play.

The gardens were laid out in the stiffly artificial style of Louis XIV's day, with avenues, canals, and thickets arranged upon a geometrical plan. Nearly one hundred sculptors were employed to adorn them with their original wealth of statues in bronze and marble, many of which remain, making the historic groves and grottos rich with plastic art. The most beautiful is perhaps the Grove of Apollo, which is illustrated here. Another of these small groves was the scene of Cardinal de Rohan's supposed meeting with Marie Antoinette in Dumas' novel of "The Queen's Necklace."*

The Grand Canal which runs through the center of the gardens, in the form of a cross, is about a mile long; in its palmy days it was filled with carved and gilded boats and galleys, hung with gold-fringed canopies and colored pennants. There was a whole set of gilded gondolas (the first having been presented to the Sun-King by the Republic of

*The Orangery contains 12,000 orange trees, some of them very old. The King's vegetable garden, founded by Louis XIV's famous gardener, was in 1873 made into a School of Horticulture, the graduates of which are in wide demand.

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Venice), and fourteen Venetian gondoliers were lodged in special buildings at the head of the canal. The fountains, however, are now the chief feature of the grounds, and though not nearly so elaborate as they were originally, are well worth seeing. Underground cellars contain the pipes used to feed them, and the highest jets rise to about seventy-four feet; each display of them all in action costs about two thousand dollars. They play for a very short time on special days, and special trains are then run from Paris at five-minute intervals. At such times the leaping waters add much to the beauty of the gardens; and indeed it is difficult to convey in words the perennial charm of the place, of its great amplitude, its long reaches of perspective, its lovely vistas, and stately rows of ancient trees, with innumerable quiet statues beneath their high green vaulting.

The mile-long reach of the Grand Canal connects Versailles with the Trianons, which adjoin the grounds on the north; two small palaces called the Grand Trianon and the Little Trianon, of which the latter is by far the more interesting. In 1663, Louis XIV purchased the little hamlet of Trianon, where he liked to bring a small circle of intimates for dinners, balls, and other divertisements; but not until twenty years later did he build the handsome house called the Grand Trianon for Madame de Maintenon, whom he had lately married. In this building Napoleon I lived for a time; but the important associations of the region are those connected with Marie Antoinette, and they all center in the Little Trianon, with its far-famed "Hamlet" where the young Queen played at country life.

The tiny palace of the Little Trianon was built by Louis XV for Madame Du Barry, and in its dining-room may still be seen the trap-door opening, through which, when that monarch gave quiet suppers, the table appeared mysteriously, with all the viands upon it. Later some of the rooms were altered for Marie Antoinette, and the garden laid out expressly for her; its exquisite little classic "Temple of Love" and its rustic "Hamlet" owe their fame to her delight in them. In 1782, when Rousseau's book, "The Village

Soothsayer," had made all the courtiers long to live the simple life, the "Hamlet" was built as a refuge and diversion from the strenuous etiquette of Versailles. The group of rustic cottages around an artificial lake include, among others, a parsonage, a mill, a farm-house, and a dairy; quaint old buildings which it is easy for the imagination to repeople with muslin-gowned beauties of the French court, gay in their temporary relaxation from elaborate toilettes and ceremonials.

A new century has come, "smiling, mocking, skeptical, doubting all things, even the divinity of a king;" yet the French monarchy, with all the force of its "divine right," still lives in the Trianons and the Palace of Versailles.

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# Rembrandt as Seen by Joseph Israels*

MANY years ago I went to Amsterdam as an art student, to be trained under the auspices of the then famous portrait painter Kruseman. Very soon I was admitted to the master's studio, and beheld with admiration the portraits of the distinguished personages he was painting at the time.

The pink flesh tints of the faces, the delicate treatment of the draperies and dresses, more often than not standing out against a background of dark red velvet, attracted me immensely. When, however, I expressed a desire to be allowed to copy some of these portraits, the master refused my request. "No," he said; "if you want to copy, go to the museum in the 'Trippenhuis.'"

I dared not show the bitter disappointment this refusal caused me. Having come fresh from the country, the old masters were a sealed book to me. I failed to discover any beauty in the homely, old-fashioned scenes of dark landscapes over which people went into ecstacies. To my untrained eyes the exhibition in "Arti" seemed infinitely more beautiful; and Pieneman, Gallait, Calame, and Koekoek especially excited my admiration.

I was not really lacking in artistic instinct any more than my fellow-students, but I had not yet gained the experience and practice, which are indispensable to the true understanding of the quaint but highly artistic qualities of the Old Dutch masters. I maintain that however intelligent a man may be, it is impossible to appreciate old Dutch art

* Quoted from "Rembrandt," by Joseph Israels. "Masterpieces in Color" Series. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.


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to the full, or even to enjoy it, unless one has become thoroughly familiar with it, and has tried to identify oneself with it. In order to be able to sound the real character and depth of manifestations of art, the artistic sensibility has to be trained and developed.

It was long before I could summon up sufficient courage to enter this Holy of Holies armed with my colors and brushes. Indeed I only started on this venture after a long spell of hard work, out-of-doors as well as in the studio, and after having made many studies from the nude, and many more still-life studies; then a light broke in upon my darkness.

I began to understand at last that the true aim of art does not consist in the smooth and delicate plastering of the colors. I realized that my chief study was to be the exact value of light and shade, the relief of the objects, and the attitude, movements, and gestures of the figures.

Having learned to look upon art from this point of view, I entered the old "Trippenhuis" with pleasure. Little by little the beauty and truth of these admirable old masters dawned upon me. I perceived that their simple subjects grew rich and full of meaning through the manner in which they were treated. The artists were geniuses, and the world around them either ignored the fact, or did not see it until too late.

Knowing little of art, I chose for my first copy a small canvas, a "Hermit" by Gerard Dou, not understanding that, though small, it might contain qualities which would prove too difficult for me to imitate. I had to work it over and over again, for I could not get any shape in the thick, sticky paint. Then I tried a head by Van der Helst, and succeeded a little better.

At last I stopped before one of the heads in the "Syndics of the Cloth Merchants' Guild." The man in the left-hand corner, with the soft grey hair under the steeple-hat, had arrested my fancy. I felt that there was something in the portrait's beauty I could grasp and reproduce, though I saw at once that the technical treatment was entirely differ-

ent from what I had attempted hitherto. However, the desire to reproduce this breadth of execution tempted me so much that I resolved to try my hand at it. I forget now what the copy looked like; I only remember that for years it hung on my studio wall. So I tried to grasp the color scheme, and the technique of the different artists, until the beauties of the so-called "Night Patrol" and the "Syndics" took such hold of me that nothing attracted me but what had come from the hand of the great master, the unique Rembrandt. In his work I found something which all the others lacked. Freedom and exuberance were his chief attractions, two qualities utterly barren and forbidden in the drawing class in my teacher's studio.

Although Franz Hals impressed me more than any other painter with the power with which he wielded the brush, even he was put in the shade by Rembrandt's unsurpassable color effects.

When I had looked at Rembrandt's pictures to my heart's content, I used to go down to the ground floor in the "Trippenhuis" to the print cabinet. Here I found his etchings beautifully arranged. It was a pleasant room overlooking a garden, and in the center stood a long table covered with a green cloth, on which one could put down the portfolio and look at the gems they contained at leisure.

I often sat there for hours, buried in the contemplation of these two hundred and forty masterpieces. The conservator never ceased urging me to be careful when he saw me mix them up too much in my efforts to compare them. How astonished I was to find in the painter who, with mighty hand, had modelled in paint the glorious "Night Patrol," an accomplished engraver, not only gifted with the power and freedom of a great painter, but thoroughly versed in all the mysteries of the use of the etching needle on the hard, smooth copper.

Still it was not the extraordinary skill which attracted me most in these etchings. It was rather the singular inventive power shown in the different scenes, the peculiar contrast between light and shade, and the most childlike

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manner in which the figures had been treated. The artist's soul not only spoke through the choice of subject, but it found an expression in every single detail, conveyed by the delicate handling of the needle.

Many Biblical subjects are represented in the Amsterdam collection; they are full of artistic imagination and sentiment in their congruity. The conception is so highly original, and at the same time betrays such a depth of understanding, that other prints, however beautifully done, look academic and stilted beside them.

Among those etchings were excellent portraits, wonderfully life-like heads of the painter's friends and of himself; but when one has looked at the little picture of his mother, he is compelled to shut the portfolio for a moment, because the unbidden tears rise to the eyes.

It is impossible to find anything more exquisite than this engraving. Motherly kindness, sweetness, and thoughtfulness are expressed in every curve, in the slightest touch of the needle. Each line has a meaning; not a single touch could have been left out without injury to the whole.

Hokusai, the Japanese artist, said that he hoped to live to be very old and that he might have time to learn to draw in such a way that every stroke of his pencil would be the expression of some living thing. That is exactly what Rembrandt has attained here, and, in this portrait, he realized at the age of twenty-four the ideal of the old Japanese; it is one of his earliest etchings.

I re-open the portfolio to have a look at the pictures of the wonderful old Jewish beggars. They were types that were to be found by the score in the Amsterdam of those days, and Rembrandt delighted to draw them. One is almost inclined to say that they cannot be beggars, because the master's hand has endowed them with the warmth and splendor with which his artistic temperament clothed everything he looked at.

When I had looked enough at the etchings, I used to go home through the town, and it seemed to me as if I were meeting the very people I had just seen in the engravings.

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As I went through the "Hoog Straat" and "St. Anthony's Breestraat" to the "Joden Breestraat," where I lived a few doors from the famous house where Rembrandt dwelt and worked so long, I saw the picturesque crowd passing to and fro; I saw the vivid Hebrew physiognomies, with their iron-grey beards; the red-headed women; the barrows full of fish or fruit, or all kinds of rubbish; the houses, the people, the sky. It was all Rembrandt—all Rembrandtesque. A great deal has been changed in those streets since the time of which I have been writing, yet, even now, whenever I pass through them I seem to see the colors, and the kind of people Rembrandt shows us in his works.

In the meantime I had found a third manifestation of Rembrandt's talent, viz., his drawings. To a young painter, who himself was still groping in the dark for means of expressing his feelings, these drawings were exceedingly puzzling, but at the same time full of stimulus.

Less palpably living than his etchings, it was some time before I could properly appreciate them, but when I understood what I firmly believe still, namely, that the master did not draw with a view to exhibiting them or only for the pleasure of making graceful outlines I felt their true meaning. They were simply the embodiments of his deeper feelings; emanations from the abundance of his fertile imagination. They have been thrown on the paper with an unthinking careless hand; the same hand that created masterpieces, prompted by the slightest impulse, the least sensation. When I looked at them superficially they seemed disfigured by all sorts of smudges and thick black lines, which cross and recross in a seemingly wild and aimless sort of way; but when looked into carefully, they all have a meaning of their own, and have been put there with a just and deep-felt appreciation of light and shade. The greater compositions crowded with figures, the buildings, the landscapes—all are impregnated with the same deep artistic feeling.

One evening one of my friends gave us a short lecture on art and showed us many drawings by ancient and modern artists, most of them, however, being by contemporaries who

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had already become famous. Among them was one drawing by Rembrandt, and it was remarkable to notice the peculiar effect it produced in the collection. The scene represented on the old smudgy piece of paper was so simple in execution, so noble in composition, done with just a few strokes of the pencil, that all the other drawings looked like apprentice-work beside it. Here was the master, towering above all.

Thus I saw Rembrandt, the man who could tell me endless stories, and could conjure them up before my eyes with either brush, pencil, or etching needle. Whether heaven or earth; the heroes of old; or only a corner of old Amsterdam—out of everything he made the most beautiful drawings. His pictures of lions and elephants are wonderfully naive. His nude figures of female models are remarkable, because no painter dared paint them exactly as he saw them in his studio, but Rembrandt, entranced by the glow and warmth of the flesh tints, never dreamt of reproducing them otherwise than as he saw them. It was no Venus, or Juno, or Diana he wanted. He might, perhaps, even take his neighbor's washerwoman, make her get up on the model throne, and put her on the canvas in all the glory of living, throbbing flesh and blood.

And the way in which he put his scrawls and strokes is so wonderful that one can never look too long at them. All his work is done with a lightheartedness, a cheerfulness, and firmness which precludes at once the idea of painful study and exertion.

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The reapers have been in the corn these thousand years, the miners in the earth, the toilers in the city; in all the labor and long-suffering is there anything like unto love? Any reward or profit in the ships, the mines, the warehouses? . . . Could but love stay, could but love have its will, no more would be needed for eternity.—"The Dewey Morn," *Richard Jeffries.*

Our C. L. S. C. Memorial Day, International Peace Day, will this year have peculiar significance for all Chautauquans. May 18, the opening of the First Hague Conference is already becoming a marked day in the world's calendar and our studies in "The Friendship of Nations" have opened up to us many new points of view of the world's progress. The recent celebration of the Lincoln Centenary was a revelation of the educational effect of such anniversaries upon a nation, and the time will come when the observance of May 18 will arouse such a world-wide demonstration as the world has not yet seen. Let all Chautauquans help the cause by some recognition of International Peace Day. A growing number of churches are observing Peace Sunday in December. The exercises of International Peace Day might very fittingly be held on Sunday, May 16, when many churches would be glad to lend their aid to coöperative plans on the part of Chautauqua Circles.



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PROGRAM SUGGESTIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY.

A number of brief addresses by prominent people in the community, appropriate music, etc., would arouse great interest. The *Advocate of Peace* for January, 1909, contains a great deal of material which could be utilized to advantage. A copy can be secured for ten cents from the American Peace Society, Boston, Mass.

Among the topics are "An Unprecedented Year," noting the remarkable progress of the peace cause in 1908. "The Next National Peace Congress," to be held in Chicago, probably in April. A report of the striking features of this congress would be timely. "The Peccant Humors of the War Spirit" is an article worth examining.

A selection from Professor Baird's monograph on the Balkan situation referred to in the March Round Table is a forcible presentation of the great changes in the European outlook in the last fifty years.

The Baroness von Suttner has recently written her autobiography, which has been translated into English and is soon to be published by Ginn & Co. Some reference to her extraordinary activities would be of great interest.

A review of the work of John de Bloch, the author of one of the most influential books against war, will be found in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

A most valuable article is that by Dr. J. H. DeForest of Japan who has been so influential in promoting good feeling in that country and correcting the statements of a jingo press. It can be secured by sending a stamp to the American Association for International Conciliation, Sub-Station 84, New York City. The pamphlet is entitled "American Ignorance of Oriental Languages."

See also a variety of suggestions in the Round Tables of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for April, 1905, 1906, 1907, and 1908.

NEWS FROM THE 1909'S.

A letter sent by the editor of the Round Table to the members of the Class of 1909 has resulted in a host of replies. Many of the writers are planning to come to Chautauqua for graduation or to attend other assemblies, and all are enthusiastic over the four years' work. The following quotations from these letters show some of the varied vocations of the members of the Dante Class. Not the least of their interest is the breadth of view and the growing sense of world brotherhood which they indicate. The first letter, from Mississippi, we quote entire:

"No, I do not expect to have the pleasure of being at Chautauqua on Recognition Day, nor have I any plans for attending any other assembly. I am very well up in my reading. I believe I have enjoyed this year the most. I have read alone, all alone, and sometimes miserably alone it has seemed to me. Yet 'one is never alone when in company with noble thoughts.' So this reading which I began over three years ago, when an invalid, not able to get

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outside of my home, has been not only profitable, but so interesting and entertaining, and has helped to pass many an otherwise painful, lonely day. Thank God, I am strong and well now and enjoy the C. L. S. C. as I do everything else, more than ever. So you see one of my main experiences during the four years has been largely the pleasurable side of it, opening up new scenes, new fields of thought, becoming acquainted with new people, new lands, and new customs, and though I hope to receive my diploma at home as an individual reader, I also hope to continue this reading indefinitely. Though already a college graduate it seems I only learn to realize how very little I know. Our class motto, 'On and fear not' is my motto for life. So all success and good wishes for the Class of 1909!"

FROM OKLAHOMA: "The course has been of great benefit to me. My schooling was very limited, but I have read and studied a great deal. Studied law four years in a private office and after examination was admitted to practice law in Oklahoma, where the rules for admission to practice of that profession are the most rigid of almost any State in the Union. The Chautauqua reading has broadened my horizon, and I am not now lost and bewildered when opposing counsel, well learned in the world's literature, flash historical facts and literary gems in support of a contended or perhaps doubtful theory of law."

FROM KENTUCKY: "I am fifty-four and do all my housework (with the children's assistance) so I read when I can and feel like it. I usually read the magazines in the kitchen and often aloud at table while some of the family are eating. I very much enjoyed Shakespeare's four plays at meetings when friends outside of the Circle met and read with us, although it did crowd out 'Rational Living,' and I had to get through it alone in the summer but it gave me a start along psychological lines that I am eager to cultivate. I read a larger book by Hudson, 'Psychic Phenomena,' last winter and try to discover the psychic phenomena in my crude way with better satisfaction. Since that English year, I find more interest in the Old Testament. In fact my reading horizon is very much enlarged and I am of more use to my children, intellectually, and I think my health is better and I am able to do my work with a much better understanding of the meaning of labor."

FROM DETROIT, MICHIGAN: "I am a teacher and have leisure to read evenings, sometimes Sundays. I generally read a book straight through twice but do not make out my answers till summer time. I think what I prize most is that it helped me to enjoy and understand my summer in Europe, part before and part after. I dearly love my Italian Cities and go back to it again and again. It has crossed the ocean four times, furnishing reading for the voyage."

FROM A NEW YORKER, whose business requires considerable traveling: "Have enjoyed the scope of the books and magazines, especially the magazine articles on criticisms of Americans. Some of those criticisms still hold good in wayback districts of New York, Ohio, and West Virginia. Where I have been drawn into conversation in hotel lobbies have been surprised to find many topics mentioned by salesmen covered in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and in the books."

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FROM NORTH CAROLINA: "I am a solitary Chautauqua reader in my beautiful country home, and have read with great pleasure and profit all the books and magazines for the last five years. I have read all the books for this year's course and have found each one a treasure in itself, and will gladly lay them by for review and future reference. . . . It is wonderful what interest we feel in the people of different countries and in the countries themselves. When we take Reading Journeys through them, fully illustrated as they are, we seem to see the countries with our mental vision and to feel that we are one people although living in different parts of the world. I do not expect to attend the Chautauqua Assembly at Chautauqua this summer but wish you all a very pleasant meeting. I shall be very glad and thankful to receive a diploma at home, but do not expect to give up my reading or interest in Chautauqua."

A MEMBER FROM MAINE recalls with pleasure her visit to Chautauqua in the first year of her course: "I shall never forget the handkerchief salute nor the singing of 'Dixie' when a good many Southerners were found to be present. I shall certainly squeeze time to catch up as I have no notion of 'flunking' so near the end of the course. I cannot tell which year I have enjoyed the most. I think each year has seemed better than the one before because I grew more accustomed to the study. I have read alone, and am not acquainted with a single member of the class. I live at home with my parents in the country, and have found the reading helpful and broadening to my very deficient education. I intend if possible to continue the reading after graduation."

FIRST GRADUATING CLASS OF THE DUTCH C. L. S. C. IN AFRICA.

Those who have followed the yearly reports in the Round Table of the Dutch C. L. S. C. in Africa have been interested spectators of a new adaptation of the Chautauqua idea. Four years ago Chautauqua was a meaningless term to the residents of the Orange River Colony. Today in scores of homes it has come to mean new interests, broader ideas and a sense of worldwide kinship. The Dutch C. L. S. C. under the wise guidance of its leaders and inspired by its devoted secretary, Rev. J. J. Ross, has made steady progress for four years. A Dutch Chautauqua Assembly has been held annually, and from its influence have sprung new circles and a growing membership. Its first graduating exercises, described by Mr. Ross in the following letter, took place last autumn.

"Just a few lines to tell your readers and fellow Chautauquans that we have had our fourth Annual Assembly last month at Kestell, and it was like the previous assemblies, a great success. We had our first graduation day. The first class known as the Class

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C. L. S. C. Class of 1908, the First to Graduate at the Dutch Chautauqua Assembly at Kestell, Orange River Colony, South Africa.

of 1908. I send you a photograph under another cover, showing the Arch of Honor, through which the graduates passed. There are fifteen members in this class; only six were present at the Assembly. They are standing under the arch. The Rev. Mr. Schoon of Ladysmith, Natal, and myself as old graduates who graduated in the American Home Reading Circle are also standing at the arch on the left as you look at the photograph. The motto in Dutch, "Ons Doel Zy Hoger"—"Excelsior," you will notice. The ceremony was a very interesting one, being the first Dutch C. L. S. C. graduating class in South Africa, and the beginning, as we hope, and have reason to believe, of great things to come. The Dutch C. L. S. C. is growing slowly, but surely and is becoming more known and more popular every year. Chautauqua is no more a strange sound or name amongst the people out here. Everybody is beginning to know Chautauqua and to honor it as a useful institution. During the months of September and October I had an opportunity to travel a bit, visiting nine towns in the Orange River Colony, lectured at all those places on the C. L. S. C. and founded six circles with 140 members, and have reason to hope that three or four more circles will be started in the near future. The Dutch C. L. S. C. out here, though only four years old, has already been a great blessing to many of us, increasing our knowledge and giving a new and wider meaning to life. At the last Assembly we had lectures on 'Greek and Roman History,' 'Greek Civilization,' and 'Roman Law' 'Rainfall in South Africa,' etc. 'Abraham' was the subject of our Bible study and was much appreciated. I hope the little I have written with the photograph will give you an idea as to what we are doing and that we are *living*."

"The Edict of William the Testy." By George H. Boughton. In the Metropolitan Museum, New York.

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### HOLLAND AND AMERICA.

Mr. George H. Boughton's painting of "The Edict of William the Testy," owned by the Metropolitan Museum, recalls Irving's Knickerbocker and the Fifth Dutch Governor of New Netherlands. Our relation to Holland seems very close when we look upon the Dutch garb of these New World residents and realize that while Wilhelm Kieft was governing Manhattan Island in 1634-1647, Spain and Holland were fighting to the death, and Rembrandt was painting his immortal masterpieces. The celebrated "Edict" prohibited smoking in New Netherlands. Irving describes it thus:

> "The immediate effect of the edict of William the Testy was a popular commotion. A vast multitude, armed with pipes and tobacco-boxes and an immense supply of ammunition, sat themselves down before the governor's house and fell to smoking with tremendous violence. The testy William issued forth like a wrathful spider, demanding the reason of this lawless fumigation. The sturdy rioters replied by lolling back in their seats and puffing away with redoubled fury, raising such a murky cloud that the governor was fain to take refuge in the interior of his castle."

### ILLUSTRATIONS OF MODERN DUTCH ART.

Many of our readers who have found the cheap reproductions of Dutch masterpieces very valuable in their study of Dutch art will miss these in their quest of illustrative material for modern Dutch painting. Fortunately certain recent volumes appearing in "The Painters' Series" relate to Modern Dutchmen: Mauve, Mesdag, Maris, and Israels. Each volume of the series bound in firm, light parchment contains some fifty small but very excellent halftones. The pictures can readily be detached and used in a circle as there is no accompanying text. The price of each booklet, twenty-five cents, makes the cost of the illustrations very trifling. They can be secured through the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York.

### 1908 GRADUATES.

Many members of the Tennyson Class have gone on with the work of the C. L. S. C. year. They have felt that

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The German Royal Family.

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a good habit once established was worth perpetuating. The friendly letter scheme so successfully inaugurated by the Class Historian has brought interesting results as the following letter shows:

Dear Classmates of 1908: I have received so many notes of appreciation of my letter circles I wish to thank you all.

It is not too late for any who have already written to do so, as I am forming new circles. I wish I could repeat the messages of good cheer and encouragement sent our members, from the frozen north and sunny south, from New England and the far west. One of our members from Manitoba writes: "As a lonely C. L. S. C. worker out here on the prairie with wind blowing, snow drifting, and thermometer thirty degrees below zero, offer to put me in touch with a genial, clever, warm-hearted circle of companions in study, came as a gleam of sunshine and touch of summertime." One of our members in Buffalo who first joined the Class of '91 and after many years finished with us says: "I feel that there have been times in my life when Chautauqua and what it stands for has meant very much to me." Our beloved vice president, Mr. Sage of Kansas, tells of his first becoming interested in Chautauqua in 1874 and his continued interest since. We have always derived abundant mental and religious stimulus as well as satisfactory entertainment from the varied and comprehensive programs presented." Hoping to hear from more of you, and thanking you for your words of appreciation, I am, Sincerely yours,

UNA B. JONES.

Stittville, New York.

A FAMOUS SWEDISH WRITER.

Our European short story for this month, entitled "Mamsell Fredrika," will introduce many readers to an unknown European author. Yet Selma Lagerlöf has been a favorite writer in Sweden for a score of years and her fiftieth birthday was recently celebrated with extraordinary enthusiasm. The March number of *Current Literature* describes her career beginning with the days when as a young teacher she wrote her first prize story and earned enough money to enable her to set aside teaching and devote herself to literature. Her work has a wide range. Poetry, folk lore and novels all have found a ready welcome among young and old in Sweden. In the beautiful little tale given in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN she eulogizes the life and work of the famous Swedish novelist Fredrika Bremer who devoted many years of her life to the liberation of women.

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THE CIRCLE AND THE COMMUNITY.

A pleasant illustration of the social service which Chautauqua circles are constantly rendering to their communities is the experience of the circle at Olean, New York, which some weeks ago arranged with Miss Edwina Spencer of Buffalo for her lecture on "The Story of Dutch Art." The members of the circle decided to meet all the expenses themselves and forthwith invited the literary societies, the schools, and all persons interested in the subject. The clergymen and others engaged in educational work were entertained at dinner informally, beforehand. The lecture was received with most cordial appreciation and the members of the community are still recalling this pleasant evidence of good citizenship on the part of the circle. The moral of this seems to be that every town ought to be distinctly enriched by the presence of a Chautauqua circle. Why not have a standing committee on social service which at intervals during the year might consider and report to the members of the circle practicable schemes for letting some of their light illuminate the community?

"MAN AND THE EARTH." TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION.

CHAPTER X.

*Query*: Is the author justified in ascribing a "sense of beauty" to the lower animals?

*Topic*: The Preservation of Nature in National Parks. *Outlook*, 87:521, Nov. 9, 1907: *World's Work*, 16:10248-61, May, 1908; *Charities and the Commons*, 20:180, May 2, 1908. General References: Shaler, Aspects of the Earth; Geikie, Geological Sketches.

CHAPTER XI.

*Query*: Can the Government prevent the extinction of game by the present methods of game protection?

*Topic*: National Forest Policy. *Outlook*, 86:716, Aug. 3, 1907; *Scientific American*, 97:413.

CHAPTER XII.

*Topic*: The Origin of the Earth. *World To-day*, 15:750, July, 1908; see also "Planetessimal Hypothesis" in F. R. Moulton's Introduction to Astronomy; Chamberlin & Salisbury's Geology, vol. 2; Laplacian Nebular Hypothesis in Young's Manual of Astronomy.

CHAPTER XIII.

General References on the Conservation of Natural Resources. (All in Periodicals of 1908.) *Review of Reviews*, 37:643; 37:585; *Independent*, 64:1151; 64:1301; *Science* (new series), 27:794; 27:867; *Atlantic Monthly*, 101:694; *Independent*, 64:946; *Scientific American*

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Supplement, 65:285; 66:62; *Engineering Magazine*, 35:432; *Nation*, 86:460; *Outlook*, 88:337; 89:355; *Century*, 76:474; 76:155; *Scientific American*, 98:366; *Outlook*, 89:144, *Review of Reviews*, 37:643.

### A QUESTION OF FACT.

A Chautauqua Circle questions Colonel Church's statement in the December CHAUTAUQUAN regarding the number killed and mortally wounded at Gettysburg. The Circle states that all encyclopedias consulted seem to corroborate the figures which he claims are untrue. Colonel Church replies that he has seen no statement from any official source that the facts are other than those which he has given. It seems quite possible that the Circle's misunderstanding has arisen from the supposition that the number classed as wounded are to be considered "mortally" wounded. If this were the case the larger figures as refuted by Colonel Church would be true, but official statements show that the term "wounded" is not to be interpreted in this sense.

### C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

### OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR MAY.

FIRST WEEK. APRIL 29-MAY 6.

In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter XVIII, Hauptmann's "The Sunken Bell." "Man and the Earth," Chapter X. "The Beauty of the Earth."

SECOND WEEK. MAY 6-13.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Chapter X. The Family of Nations in Conference at the Hague.
In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature." Chapter XIX, Sudermann's "Es War." "Man and the Earth," Chapter XI. The Future of Nature upon the Earth.

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THIRD WEEK. MAY 13-20.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land," Chapter VIII. The Theaters, Shops, Travel on the Tramways and Canals, etc.

In the Required Books: "Man and the Earth," Chapters XII and XIII. The Last of the Earth and Man. Summary and Conclusions.

FOURTH WEEK. MAY 20-27.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Dutch Art and Artists," Chapter VIII. Modern Dutch Painting. Israels, Mesdag, and Bosboom.

In the Required Book: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter XX. Ibsen's "A Doll's House."

## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK. APRIL 29-MAY 6.

Study of Hauptmann's "The Sunken Bell." (See Suggestions in Round Table for February. Interesting supplementary material for discussion can be secured by assigning to different members such magazine articles as may be available from which they can select the points especially worth bringing out.)

Roll Call: Current news regarding the progress of efforts to preserve the beauty of our own country or of other lands.

Reports and discussion on "Man and the Earth," Chapter X. (See suggestions in Round Table.)

SECOND WEEK. MAY 6-13.

Review and Discussion of required article on "The Family of Nations."

Paper: Jean de Bloch and his influence upon the Peace Movement.

Roll Call: Answers to the question, "Among the influences making for peace today what three seem to you to be most effective?"

Study of Sudermann's "Es War." (See suggestions under previous program.)

Reports and Discussion on "Man and the Earth," Chapter XI. (See suggestions in Round Table.)

THIRD WEEK. MAY 13-20.

Map Review of The Hague with brief references to its historic associations. (See Baedeker's Belgium and Holland.)

Paper: The Queen of Holland and Her Coronation. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter II. "The American in Holland," Chapters XXXVII-IX.)

Roll Call: Answers to the question: What six Dutchmen and in what order would you consider most worthy of a place in a Hall of Fame?

Paper: The four leading parties in Holland today: The Liberals, the Social Democrats, the Anti-Revolutionists, the Roman Catholics. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter XVII.)

Review and Discussion of "Man and the Earth," Chapters XII and XIII. (See suggestions in Round Table. The magazine references given might be assigned to different members who would report upon the most important facts contained in them.)

FOURTH WEEK. MAY 20-27.

Review and Discussion of Ibsen's "A Doll's House." (See suggestions above under program for first week.)

Reading: Selection from Israels' "Autobiography" in this magazine.

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Review and Discussion of Dutch Artists: Israels, Bosboom, and Mesdag. (See articles in *International Studio* of February, 1908, on Bosboom and in February, 1909, on Bernard de Hoog.)

Roll Call: Answers to the question, If it were possible to select twelve original Dutch masterpieces for a loan exhibit, which would your circle choose as best illustrating the distinctive qualities of Dutch art? Give name of picture as well as of artist.

## THE TRAVEL CLUB.

(As many clubs do not continue their reading after the middle of May, the following programs will cover also the subjects to be taken up in the June readings.)

FIRST WEEK.

Review of Chapter on "The Workman of the Towns." (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

Paper: Dutch influence upon England. (See Fiske's "Dutch and Quaker Colonies.")

Roll Coll: Dutch Words in our English Speech in America.

Brief Survey of the History of Holland in this Country. (See Fiske's "Dutch and Quaker Colonies.")

Reading: From Knickerbocker's History of New York. Book IV.

SECOND WEEK.

Paper: The Dutch Peasant at Home. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter VIII, and all other available books.)

Roll Call: Answered by identifying three Dutch paintings selected from a number placed on a wall with the names of the artists covered.

Reading: Selection from Israels' autobiographical sketch in the Library Shelf in this magazine.

Review and Discussion of required article on Israels, Mesdag, and Bosboom.

Reading: Selection from article on Bernard de Hoog in *International Studio* for February, 1909, and on Bosboom in *International Studio* for February, 1908.

THIRD WEEK.

Map Review of The Hague. (See Baedeker, also "The American in Holland," Chapter XXXV.)

Paper: The Queen of Holland and her Coronation. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter II, Court and Society, and "The American in Holland," Chapters XXXVII-IX.)

Oral Reports: The Queen's Window in the Nieuwke Kerk. (See "The American in Holland," Chapters XXXVII-IX); Het Loo (See above Chapter XXII); The Binnenhof (see above Chapter XXXV, also Baedeker); Dutch History as commemorated in the street names of The Hague (see above Chapter XXXV.)

Roll Call: Answers to the question, What Six Dutchmen and in what order would you consider it most fitting to place in a Hall of Fame?

FOURTH WEEK.

Brief Papers: The Dutch Liberals: The Social Democrats; The Anti-Revolutionists; The Roman Catholics. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter XVII.)

Roll Call: Answers to the question: What twelve Dutch pic-

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tures world you select for a loan exhibit to give the best idea of the qualities of Dutch art of the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries?

Reading: Selections from article on Roelof's in *International Studio* for May, 1908; on Mauve, Nov., 1907.

Review and Discussion of Dutch artists in last article of series in the May CHAUTAUQUAN.

## REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS.

"THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS," CHAPTER X. THE FAMILY OF NATIONS.

1. What reasons led to the selection of the Hague for the International Peace Congresses? 2. What tribute was paid at the first Congress to the father of international law? 3. What three buildings in The Hague will possess international importance in the future history of the world? 4. What gatherings will be held in the new Peace Palace? 5. What important documents will be preserved there? 6. Describe the work of the Interparliamentary Union. 7. Give an account of the steps which led to the Second International Peace Conference. 8. How was the question of invitations to the first conference settled? 9. What countries sent delegates to it? 10. What was the character of the congress and how was the question of votes determined? 11. How did it happen that the Great Powers occupied prominent positions? 12. How was the influence of the Latin American republics felt in the Second Conference? 13. Note some striking facts regarding the number and arrangement of the delegates to the Second Conference. 14. How were the offices distributed in the First and Second Conferences? 15. In what language were the discussions held? 16. What devices insured smooth working of the diplomatic machinery? 17. Who were some of the most influential delegates? 18. What were some of the most important measures approved? 19. How were the subjects open for discussion determined upon in advance? 20. With how much authority were the delegates from the United States invested? 21. What were "conventions," "declarations," and "resolutions?" 22. How were the expenses distributed? 23. What comparison may be made between the cost of battleships and of peace conferences? 24. What was the attitude of the Conferences toward increase of armament? 25. Toward warfare in the air? 26. What were some of the restrictions placed upon warfare upon the sea? 27. What were some of the prohibitions in warfare on land? 28. In what respect are The Hague Conferences entitled to especial honor? 29. What agreement was made regarding "friendly intervention?" 30. What is the purpose of the International Prize Court? 31. What is the Permanent Court of Arbitration? 32. Who compose the Administrative Council and what is its work? 33. What is the idea of a Court of Arbitral Justice? 34. What difficulty stands in the way of its establishment? 35. What tasks at present occupy the attention of the governments foremost in the work of peace?

A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW-LAND. PART VIII.

1. What characteristics of the Dutch theater strike a foreigner? 2. What outdoor amusements take the place of the theaters in the summer? 3. What time-honored customs characterize the "Maag Bitter" shop? 4. How is respect for the "stork" shown in Holland? 5. What unique features have the tobacco and drug shops? 6. What are some of the sights to be noted in a tram

trip? 7. Describe the Dutch canal boats. 8. How are artists' "bargains" possible in Holland? 9. What odd experience befel Whistler? 10. Describe the method of fishing for herring.

"DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS," CHAPTER VIII. MODERN ARTISTS: ISRAELS AND MESDAG.

1. How did Dutch painting in the eighteenth century compare with that of the seventeenth? 2. How long a time was covered by this period of decadence? 3. What were the ideals of the Classicists? 4. How was their influence felt? 5. When did the Romanticists arise and what were their theories? 6. Who were the first of the great modern Dutch painters? 7. What great French landscape painters introduced a new spirit into the art of the nineteenth century? 8. Describe the methods of Bosboom as shown in his churches. 9. Give an account of the early life of Israels. 10. What were the characteristics of his paintings at this time? 11. What is one very evident reason for Israel's popularity? 12. What artistic qualities show him to be a master of the brush? 13. How does his drawing compare with that of some other great artists? 14. Through what stages of progress has Israels passed? 15. In what respects is he the representative of his country in modern times. 16. What impression is conveyed by Israels' personality? 17. Discuss briefly the work of some of the other contemporary leaders in figure painting. 18. Give an account of Mesdag and the character of his art.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. When was the Interparliamentary Union formed? 2. From what poem is taken the quotation "The parliament of man," etc.? 3. Name the Latin Republics of America.

1. What are the chief imports which the Netherlands get from the United States? 2. What exports do they send to the United States? 3. Who were the Elzevirs? 4. What important law was discovered by Professor Snellius of Leyden? 5. Who was William the Testy?

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON APRIL READINGS.

1. John III King of Poland 1674-96. Brought an army of 20,000 Poles to the relief of Vienna in 1683, when he gained a celebrated victory over the Turks. 2. The Crimean War in 1854. The Russo-Turkish War, 1877. 3. The Congress of Berlin in 1878. 4. Eastern Rumelia joined itself to Bulgaria in 1885. 5. Peter I. 6. Ferdinand. 7. Carol I. 8. Elizabeth, Queen of Roumania.

1. It was carried off by the French in 1795. The Dutch government offered 60,000 florins to Napoleon for its restoration. 2. Fight between a turkey and a cock. 3. The author of a famous novel, Max Havelaar, in which he called attention to the abuses of the Dutch government in Java. 4. The Buytenhof at the Hague and the prison at Loewenstein, from which Grotius escaped. 5. *Het Nieuws Van den Dag,* a family journal, 40,000 circulation, liberal in tone; *Het Niews Rotterdamsche Courant,* liberal and opposed to municipal and state intervention; *Het Algemeen Handelsblad* of Amsterdam, appealing especially to the merchants, traders, etc., advanced liberal.

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## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

The attendance of graduates at the Round Table was unusually large, for it was the day appointed for reports of the Societies of the Hall in the Grove. "I am glad to see," said Pendragon, "that the Dante Class delegates have their note books much in evidence. Our graduate Circles are doing fine work in many states but there is an opportunity for many more of them and the later classes should add a substantial number of new organizations every year." "Ours is a new society," said a member from Niagara Falls, "and it's a thriving one. We got into such good working habits in the undergraduate circle that we can't stop! We have twelve active members and have been studying with great delight the "Reading Journey through Switzerland" in the August CHAUTAUQUAN. We have discovered as a result of our S. H. G. that there are a number of graduates who are glad to have their Chautauqua fervor stirred anew and some who did not quite finish the course. We hope to look up the records of these "unfinished" Chautauquans and help them put on the final touches necessary to take hold once more with our society. I look back with pleasure to my early days in the C. L. S. C. when in 1890 I started the first circle in Coudersport, Pa. You know they have done fine work there with flourishing circles and a building of their own until it burned down. They have funds in the bank, however, which in good time they expect to put into an enterprise which will be of great benefit to the town."

"If one may judge from attendance and interest," remarked Miss Hopkins, from Shelbyville, Illinois, "our S. H. G. was never stronger than this year. We have twenty-one members and there were seventeen at our last meeting. Do you wonder that we are proud of such proofs of unabated interest after ten years of weekly meetings? All of our members subscribe for THE CHAUTAUQUAN and we have followed the Friendship of Nations and Holland studies with great interest, utilizing our opportunities for supplementary reading. In addition we decided to do some work in sociology and as no one book seemed to meet just our needs, we adopted the plan of selecting nine or ten books which all members are asked to read so far as possible, but each book is the special study of two members who give the most salient and helpful thoughts from it. Some of the books, as you will see from our calendar, require downright "digging," but not one member has failed to have a carefully prepared review of her book at the appointed time. We all feel that we have grown much in knowledge that awakens broader sympathy and desire for intelligent service. The out-of-college girls are, I believe, a set of young people whom we ought to try especially to reach for the sake of their influence. They can do so

much to help other people by means of the C. L. S. C. as soon as they realize what an all round useful thing it is. We have a Vassar graduate who has been a great gain to our circle this year. I neglected to say that our S. H. G. is a department of our Woman's Club. The C. L. S. C. also forms another department, each department is responsible for one open meeting of the club each year. The arrangement works splendidly. Our year book which you may like to see shows the complete plan."

"I often think," said the delegate from Beatrice, Nebraska, "of a sentence I once saw in the *Outlook*,—"a good education is the most genuinely social process in life." We have studied a good deal the question of making our education and that of others a social process. Several of our readers live some miles in the country, but we impress upon them the class spirit by sending special invitations, copies of the programs, etc., and we feel that our most effective influence is in this kind of personal work. Our S. H. G. of fifteen members is studying Shakespeare and Paradise Lost, and every year we have a banquet and welcome the new graduates. We haven't yet solved the problem of how to get the young girls interested. This is where our college girls have a great opportunity. We could have a fine circle of young people if we could secure a good leader."

"We have had that very experience," rejoined the delegate from Windsor Illinois. "Nine of our high school girls formed a circle a year ago but it died for lack of a strong leader. There are few college girls in the town but I've succeeded in interesting a number of college friends elsewhere who are lone readers. We have had sixty-seven C. L. S. C. readers in our town in the last ten years, many of them really living at some distance in the country. I am really distressed to report that for the first time in ten years our regular C. L. S. C. has lapsed. But we feel sure it will rise again. Meanwhile the S. H. G. is keeping up this winter with THE CHAUTAUQUAN and the study of Germany. We are also trying to let our Chautauqua training help the community. We entertain the Woman's Club and other friends three times a year. At the holidays we made our program on the origin and traditions of Christmas. In January we had a very creditable arts and crafts exhibit and we hope to show the advantages of our Dutch studies by an exhibit of Dutch pictures. We observed Peace Day last year."

"I'm glad to note the allusion to Peace Day," commented Pendragon. "There is not only growing interest in peace, but an increasing amount of material which the public would enjoy having presented and the educational effect upon the press and public opin-

ion will in the end make itself felt. The churches are the natural centers for a peace celebration and would be glad in many cases to have Chautauqua circles coöperate with them."

A number of societies made brief reports at this point. The Sinclairville, New York, S. H. G. had held its reunion in November. The society is in the country and many of the members are well along in years, but they look out upon life with courage and have in recent years been reinforced by younger graduates who are true to the traditions of their elders and keep in touch also with the undergraduates of the vicinity.

The Holley, New York, members held their usual reunion in February. Very fittingly the exercises were given up to a Lincoln celebration and the capable and energetic committee had a varied program. The town has no active circle in these days but it is by no means impossible that a revival should occur. East Cleveland also in a region containing few graduates loyally brings them together once a year. Out of a small field persistently cultivated there is always a possibility of surprises. Jefferson County in New York State has for more than ten years kept up a flourishing Alumni. There are now eighty members and as the towns are small and the members widely scattered the yearly reunions have done a great deal to keep the spirit of Chautauqua active in the various communities. In Benton Harbor, Mich., twenty active graduates meet once a week for hard study varying the program monthly with a social meeting and an authors' program. They are all subscribers to THE CHAUTAUQUAN and by this means are posted upon the latest plans of study suggested by the Reading Circle. At Chautauqua, New York, the S. H. G. is necessarily overshadowed by the A. M. Martin Circle which draws into its genial society most of the active members of the town. The S. H. G., however, keeps its organization so that it may be in line for any possible developments.

Pendragon called the attention of the company to the year book of the Lincoln, Nebraska, S. H. G. "The older Chautauquans," he said, "will remember the very interesting work carried on many years ago by the C. L. S. C. members of Lincoln, many of them graduates, who established the work in the Lincoln State Prison where it took the name of the Look Forward Circle. Out of that movement grew a prison society which did much in helping men who had left prison to get on their feet again. The present S. H. G. was formed in 1888. Its year book shows a fine program, Germany, Austria and studies in practical questions of the day." "I notice," he continued, "that the Chautauqua Alumni of Fort Dodge, Iowa, have been taking up special studies in English Literature. One of

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the interesting topics which they debated was: 'Is the effect of large industries of advantage or disadvantage to human or social relations?'" "Our S. H. G.," remarked the Des Moines delegate, "is rather a new society, having been formed in 1903, but we have a membership of eighty-five and are hoping to bring into it all the members in Des Moines. We have studied the two Dutch series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN with the greatest pleasure, meeting once a month in the different homes. The Chautauqua Union which is a general organization to bring all members in the city, both graduate and undergraduate, together once a month, held a costume party in the late autumn, Dutch gowns being much in evidence while one of our well known artists, Mr. Charles Cumming, gave a stereopticon lecture on Dutch artists. These union meetings play a very important part in the life of our city."

"We have only time," said Pendragon, "for very brief references to some of the other societies but we must not forget the fine band of graduates at Fostoria, Ohio, a town which has besides two large circles. Forty graduates also from the S. H. G. of Norwalk, Ohio, a recent society, twenty-five at Syracuse, New York, twenty-one at Westfield and in Belfast, Maine, a group who are studying Switzerland. Fifty members constitute the S. H. G. of Urbana, Ill., which has done some very creditable work under the direction of university professors. There are others who are not here today but who are also doing credit to their Alma Mater. All the graduates of Cincinnati and vicinity are holding their S. H. G. reunion at this time. It promises to be a great occasion but we must wait for their report until another meeting.

"The question which we want always to keep in mind is, are we growing? If your S. H. G. is confessedly weak appoint a series of committees on ways and means for improving it and see what can be done. Have some of your older or younger graduates grown away from Chautauqua? Persuade them to take THE CHAUTAUQUAN if possible. Make another attempt to start an undergraduate circle in the town. Invite some good lecturer to come and speak on a Chautauqua topic—travel or art or some of the world's great men and make it an occasion for a Chautauqua rally. Or improve the opportunity to educate public sentiment in the Peace cause. It would make a fine occasion for Chautauqua to serve the community. Most movements seem to demand an ebb tide now and then, and if your society has allowed the ebb to carry you some distance you may be sure there will be a chance soon to catch the turn of the tide.

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# Esperanto News

During the latter part of December and the first part of January, the Pan-American Scientific Congress, assembled in Santiago de Chile, passed resolutions of great interest to the Esperanto world. This Congress was attended by government representatives and by prominent university professors from the countries of both North and South America, and many important scientific topics were discussed during the sessions.

The action of most interest to Esperantists was the decision and recommendation of the Congress in regard to the introduction of Esperanto in the schools, and its official adoption by the nations of the world, through an invitation to be extended by the government of the United States. Following is a translation of these resolutions:

"Considering, that the Esperanto language is a human blessing, practically used by thousands of people in all the civilized nations; and that it is a factor which aims toward the adoption of the ideals of human happiness and is therefore of special interest to America, the future field of action of the two great civilizations (Spanish-speaking and English-speaking) which confront each other politically and commercially, the First Pan-American Scientific Congress recommends Esperanto as a neutral international language which deserves an important place in the programs of primary instruction of the American nations.

"Considering, that a neutral auxiliary international language is necessary, and observing that the idiom Esperanto fulfils the requirement, that it is already sufficiently wide-spread throughout the world, and that official propaganda alone is lacking:

"(1) The First Pan-American Scientific Congress decides to express to the American governments the pleasure with which it would view the call for a Congress to which would come official representatives of all civilized countries, with the purpose of solving the problem by the adoption of the neutral international auxiliary language; and

"(2) It agrees to urge upon the government of the United States of North America that, under its grand auspices, this desire of the Congress may be affected."

Together with a copy of the above resolutions, a letter was sent to the Esperanto Association of North America, by the Societo Patrimo de Chilo, the Esperanto Club of Valparaiso, and other organizations. Following is the translation of the letter:

"We are happy to inform you of the great triumph which our Societo Partrina Esperantisto de Cilo attained in the First Pan-American Scientific Congress, which fully approved the proposals presented by Messrs. Kontreas, Biaut, and Nova Orellana, copies of which we enclose. Our eminent president, Sro. Eduardo Fabres, who introduced Esperanto into the Congress, was, for various causes beyond his control, unable to attend.

"To this great Congress, which took place in Santiago de Chile, came official delegates of the twenty governments of the American nations.

"As you see, the United States government is charged with the fulfilment of the arrangement of a universal congress to work for the acceptance of the international language.

"Therefore the responsibility falls on you, the North Ameri-



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can fellow-thinkers, to urge these proposals upon the government of the United States, and to obtain the early assembling of the World Congress.

"We beg you to communicate the various proposals to all bodies affiliated with you, to facilitate the final triumph.

"Our promise and our duty are fulfilled, and now the last step remains to you.

"The Pan-American honor is in your hands. Defend it! Labor! Go forward and you will win!

"Kindly accept, victors of the future, the greetings of your friends, who have fulfilled their duty."

## A Short Course in Esperanto. VIII

| | |
|---|---|
| La vetero estas tre bona,<br>kaj tial la infano volas promeni | The weather is very fine,<br>and therefore the child wishes to go walking |
| en la parko, kun sia fratino. | in the park with his sister. |
| Li surmetas la ĉapelon kaj la surtuton,<br>kaj ŝi faras same,<br>kaj ili ekiras kune, al la strato. | He puts on his hat and coat, and she does the same,<br>and they go out together, to the street. |
| Ili marŝas sur la strato ĝis la enirejo al la parko,<br>kaj eniras en la parkon,<br>kaj promenas sur la tordaj vojetoj. | They walk on the street up to the entrance of the park.<br>and go into the park,<br>and go walking on the winding paths. |
| Estas tre agrable tie,<br>ĉar la birdoj kantas dolĉe sur la brancoj de la arboj,<br>kaj la ĉielo estas blua kaj sen nuboj,<br>kaj la suno brilas hele,<br>kaj varma venteto blovas. | It is very pleasant there,<br>for the birds sing sweetly on the branches of the trees,<br>and the sky is blue and without clouds,<br>and the sun shines brightly,<br>and a warm breeze blows. |
| La herbo estas verda kaj mola, kaj la infanoj marŝas sur ĝi,<br>lasante la vojetojn, kaj irante al lageto kium ili admiras. | The grass is green and soft, and the children walk upon it,<br>leaving the paths, and going toward a little lake which they admire. |
| Ili sidiĝas sur la bordo de tiu ĉi lageto,<br>kaj rigardas la akvon,<br>kiu estas klarega kaj trankvila, kaj rimarkinde pura. | They sit down upon the shore of this lake, and look at the water,<br>which is limpid and tranquil, and very remarkably clean. |
| En ĝi naĝadas fiŝetoj, kiuj estas orkoloritaj, kaj beletaj, kaj tre aktivaj. | In it are swimming little fishes, which are gold-colored, and pretty, and very active. |
| La infanoj estas feliĉaj, rigardante tiujn ĉi fiŝetojn naĝantajn tien kaj reen en la akvo de la lageto,<br>kaj volas doni manĝajon ali. | The children are happy, looking at the little fishes swimming back and forth in the water of the little lake,<br>and wish to give food to them. |
| Tial ili metas la menojn en la poŝojn, | Therefore they put their hands into their pockets, |

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en kiujn ili enmetis biskavitojn antaŭ ol ekiriel la hejmo,
kaj elprenas tiujn biskvitojn.

into which they had put biscuits before starting from home,
and take out those biscuits.

Tiam ili disrompas la biskvitojn en malgrandajn pecojn,
kaj ĵetas ilin en la akvon.

Then they break up the biscuits into small pieces,
and throw them into the water.

La fiŝoj, vidante la pecojn de biskvito,
naĝas rapide al la bordo de la lageto,,

kaj ekkaptas la pecojn per siaj buŝoj,
kaj fornaĝas for de la bordo.

The fishes, seeing the pieces of biscuit,
swim quickly toward the shore of the little lake,
and seize the pieces with their mouths,
and swim away from the shore.

Aliaj fiŝtoj, vidante tion, naĝas ankaŭ al la infanoj, por trovi aliajn pecojn de manĝajo, similajn al tiuj kiujn la fiŝetoj havas.

Other little fishes, seeing this, also swim toward the children, to find other pieces of food, like those which the other little fishes have.

Tiamaniere la infanoj havas multe da plezuro, dum preskaŭ tuta horo, tie sur la bordo de la lageto.

In such manner the children have much pleasure, during almost an entire hour, there on the border of the lake.

Sed fine tiu ĉi okupo enuigas ilin,
kaj ili stariĝas kaj komencas rèe marŝi,
for de la lageto, kaj al la hejmo,
rememorante ke ili havas lecionojn por prepari.

But finally this occupation wearies them,
and they arise and begin to walk again,
away from the lake and towards home,
remembering that they have lessons to prepare.

Ili vidas beletan malgrandan hundon,
kiu kuras post ili,
kaj ili volas doni magajon al ĝi,
sed ili havas nenion por doni,
ĉar ili jam donis ĉion al la fisoj.

They see a pretty little dog,
which runs after them,
and they wish to give it something to eat,
but they have nothing to give,
for they gave everything to the fishes.

Tial ili nur frapetas la hundon, kareseme, kaj parolas al ĝi,
dum ĝi svingas la voston, kaj bojas por respondo.

Therefore they merely pat the dog caressingly, and talk to it,
while it wags its tail and barks for an answer.

La knabo diris al sia fratino,
"Ĉu ne estus bone, se le patrino permesus al ni ke ni retenu tiun ĉi karan hundeton?"

The boy said to his sister,
"Would it not be fine, if mother would allow us to keep this dear little dog?"

"Jes," respondis lia fratino, "sed vi scias ke la patrino ne ametas hundojn,
anstataŭ hundoj ŝi preferas katojn,
ĉar katoj estas utilaj,
tial ke ili ĉasas, kaptas, kaj mortigas la musojn."

"Yes," answered his sister, "but you know that mother does not like dogs,
instead of dogs she prefers cats,
because cats are useful,
since they chase, catch, and kill the mice."

Sed kiam ili alvenis al la domo, ilia patrino premesis ke ili retenu la hundon se ili neniam alkondukus ĝin en la domon.

But when they arrived at the house, their mother permitted them to keep the dog if they never would bring it into the house.

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Tion ĉi ili promesis, kaj post tiam la infanoj tre ĝojis ludi kun la ludema hundeto.

This they promised, and after that time the children greatly enjoyed playing with the playful little dog.

# Talk About Books

HENRIK IBSEN: THE MAN AND HIS PLAYS. By Montrose J. Moses. Kennerly: New York. Pp. 522. $1.50.

Mr. Moses has been establishing a reputation as editor and commentator of things dramatic. The present work is much his most ambitious, and a real contribution to the already copious Ibsen literature. He adopts the point of view steadily and rightly gaining ground of the socio-literary critic, and attempts to connect the individual plays and their dominant ideas with the conditions both social and temperamental which preceded their composition. Mr. Moses' enthusiasm over the earlier poetic plays is greater than that which he shows for the later social studies. The work is full, accurate, individual and, one regrets to say, more effective in conception than in literary style. The real Ibsen student, however, will perhaps pardon this defect and will surely be grateful for the bibliographical note with which the book is concluded.

POEMS OF AMERICAN HISTORY. By Burton E. Stevenson. Boston and New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company. Pp. 704. Price $3 net postpaid.

This unique collection of poems has a distinct place of its own and takes its place among other anthologies in response to a widely felt need. Even today the influence of the bard and minstrel is strong among us. The poet can make an impression when the scientific historian fails to win an audience. Therefore this book which has been compiled with indefatigable patience and skill by a practical librarian will find a cordial welcome in schools and homes everywhere. The author's task has required much judgment and discrimination. History in rhyme is not necessarily poetry and a good deal of this sort of material has had to be sifted out. Nevertheless the poems retained illustrate with surprising completeness the chief and many of the less prominent facts of American history. The author has occasionally introduced brief notes which form connecting links between the poems and help to give the events set forth greater significance. More than seventeen hundred poems skilfully grouped make this volume most fascinating reading, for one gets not merely the facts, but the very spirit of the times when the events occurred. Some of these are set forth in verse which has become immortal. The indexes and supplementary notes add much to the practical convenience of the book and its typography is all that could be desired.

BY THE CHRISTMAS FIRE. By Samuel McChord Crothers. Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston and New York. Pp. 226. Price $1.25; postage 10 cents.

One would wish to have "The Christmas Fire" go on burning indefinitely if it would insure the presence of so genial a personality as the author of this alluring volume. His opening chapter, "The


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Bayonet Poker," strikes the keynote of Christmas at the outset. "To transform a sword into a pruning hook is a matter for a skilled smith, but to change a bayonet into a poker is within the capacity of the least mechanical. All that is needed is to cause the bayonet to forsake the murderous rifle barrel and cleave to a short wooden handle. Henceforth its function is not to thrust itself into the vitals of men, but to encourage combustion on winter nights." With this text the philosopher finds no difficulty in making practical applications, biblical, literary or economic as the case may be concerning our attitude toward war. The keenest thrusts are made by his peaceful bayonet becoming effective by reason of the kindly humor which guides them. "Christmas and the Literature of Disillusion" is another chapter of particularly good cheer. When we have been suffering from the effects of a realistic novel it is well to be reminded that the author is working in a limited field, and that "it is dangerous to allow the dramatist or novelist to furnish us with a 'philosophy of life.' The chances are that, instead of impartiality fulfilling the duties of a common carrier, he will foist upon us his own goods, and force us to draw conclusions from the samples of human nature he has in stock!" But one might quote this clever and human philosopher indefinitely. Once known he will always be assured of a place by our Christmas fire.

DUKE OF BRITTANY. Translated from the German of Henriette Jeanrenaud.

MARIE ANTOINETTE'S YOUTH. Translated from the German of Dr. Heinrich von Lank.

ARNOLD OF WINKELRIED. Translated from the German of Gustav Höcker.

UNDINE, A ROMANCE. Translated from the German of Baron de la Motte Fougue.

Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. Price 60c net, a volume.

These four volumes are a part of the series "Life Stories for Young People." They are all translated by Mr. George P. Upton. The entire series must be very valuable reading, if one may judge all by these four. Mr. Upton has rare ability of translating German classics into smooth and readable English. These books are delightfully told histories and stories and good wholesome reading for young people. They are very attractive in appearance.

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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Nationalism as an Ideal for the Youth of America

Literature of the Peace Movement

A Peace Perspective

The Court and Capital of Holland

Dutch Painters of Landscapes and Marines

Modern French Sculpture

International War and Peace Museum at Lucerne.

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# *Woman in the Progress of Civilization*

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Auguste Rodin, the Famous French Sculptor. (See "Modern French Sculpture," page 400).

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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 54. MAY, 1909. No. 3.

IN the United States the paramount question today is "genuine" revision of the tariff. Congress, in special session, is wrestling with the question, and the whole moral influence of the new administration is frankly thrown—and has been since Mr. Taft's nomination and election—on the side of the friends of liberal revision. The "interests" opposed to reduction of unnecessary duties, the monopolies that flourish under the shelter of excessive protection, have been active in circulating reports to the effect that "liberal" revision means heavy deficits in the Treasury balances and as a last resort, the reimposition of "war taxes." It is true that the government faces a heavy deficit of over $100,000,000 this fiscal year, and that not only the customs, but the internal revenue, will need earnest consideration, but it is not true that "genuine" and liberal revision of the tariff spells new taxes in other directions or the revival of oppressive, inconvenient, and unfamiliar "war" duties. As a matter of fact, lower duties tend to increase government income by encouraging importation of raw materials, articles of comfort, and luxuries. Thus a proper reduction of high duties may solve the question of the deficit without recourse to new taxes. Few members of Congress, indeed, are prepared publicly to propose "war taxes" in advance of comprehensive and final action with reference to the tariff.

The fundamental principles of the process of tariff revision in the United States are now well understood, and there is little ground for apprehension in business circles. There is to be no attack on protection, but substantial reductions can be made in many lines without injustice to national



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industry. A dual tariff, on the European plan, with maximum rates for non-reciprocity countries and minimum rates for such as are prepared to give us equivalent concessions, is more and more strongly favored, though this kind of a tariff has its serious dangers. It may provoke commercial conflicts and it gives the "standpatters" ample opportunities to resist actual modification of antiquated or extortionist duties. A dual tariff would be acceptable to the reformer, provided the maximum duties were moderate and reasonable enough in themselves and just to the American consumers.

At any rate, whatever is done must, as all agree, be done with businesslike efficiency and dispatch. Industry and trade have to some extent been adversely affected by the uncertainty as to the outcome of the work on the tariff; such, at least, is the opinion of merchants and financiers and trade organs. Nothing else, it is said, has stood in the way of complete restoration of prosperity, and as such restoration has been slower than was anticipated, the disposition to find the cause of this retardation in the tariff "agitation" is not unnatural. The task of Congress should be completed in June.

In Great Britain the fiscal or "tariff reform" issue is again coming to the front. The House of Commons has rejected a motion favoring a small tax on food imported from foreign countries, with preference for the colonies, but whether the Liberal majority in that chamber still represents the country on the great fiscal questions, as it did three and a half years ago, when the Tories were overwhelmingly defeated, is a matter of opinion. Trade losses and unemployment have tended to strengthen the movement called "Chamberlainism," the cause of protection plus colonial preference, and the Tories have apparently recovered confidence. Notwithstanding recent social developments—the old-age pension system, labor legislation, etc.—the fiscal issue will undoubtedly be the leading issue in the next general election in England; and that election is not far off. The House of Lords is anxious to hasten it, while the Liberals feel that undue delay may do them more harm than good.

In France likewise the issue of the day is tariff revision. Even the proposed income tax, unpopular as it is with the mercantile interests, has been overshadowed by the controversy over the tariff. The present duties were enacted in 1902, but since then many changes have been made in them. Increased protection is now demanded by powerful interests on the ground that France has suffered from tariff indiscrimination, as well as on the further ground that new industries have arisen that need fostering. The opponents of higher protection say that the proposed remedy would provoke retaliation and close to France some of her best markets, including the American. Reciprocity rather than increased protection is the counter-proposal of these elements. The subject is vigorously debated in the Parisian press, and parliament is expected to take it up at its next session. The outcome of the tariff struggle in this country may have no slight effect on the trend of the fiscal discussion in France and in England.

### Probation for Trusts and Control of Prices

Extraordinary things have been witnessed recently in this country with reference to trusts and monopolies. Court decisions ousting law-breaking trusts from whole states, though based on perfectly simple and well-settled legal principles, such as the right of a state to lay down conditions for corporations asking privileges of it—are startling in practice, but even more startling have been some of the results of such decisions. Rather than leave rich fields and see competitors invade them, the arrogant trusts, so impatient of public control and so ready to condemn measures of regulation as "Socialistic" and dangerous, have offered to put themselves within the complete control of the courts of the offended states—to act under the direction of trustees appointed by order of court, to accept the fullest publicity, to agree to charge reasonable rates, to abandon all devious and dark practices—in short to do everything that can be rightly demanded of a public corporation.

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The spectacle of a trust under probation, of a trust led and watched by a court, with a suspended sentence of ouster ever threatening it in the event of a lapse into vice or crime, would indeed be a strange one. Probation for juvenile offenders is familiar, as is probation or the "parole" for adult criminals of certain classes. The theory is that if the first offender should be "given a chance to mend his ways" with advantage to himself, to his family, and to the state why should not probation be applied to trusts and corporations? There is no apparent reason why it should not be; only, the fact that the suggestion originated with a powerful trust is distinctly remarkable.

Still, in the case of an interstate trust, especially trusts that are under federal as well as state fire for alleged violation of laws and contract obligations, local probation might present certain anomalies. If a trust of this kind were under probation and court control in one state and "fancy free" in another, possibly a neighboring state, what would happen? It might attempt to recoup itself where it was free for the losses sustained in the other state. A Janus-faced trust, victorious, say in Missouri, but wedded to its rebates, its tricks, its sharp practices, its unfair methods in Illinois, would not please the people of the latter state. They would naturally insist on a degree of control and regulation that their neighbors enjoyed, and the old reasons against such control would no longer sound plausible. Thus state probation for trusts might lead to national control and to a system of national incorporation.

It may be pointed out here that President Gary of the United States Steel corporation and Mr. Carnegie, the former iron and steel master, have publicly advocated government control of prices in monopolized industries. The latter has made the proposal directly and deliberately, while the former has indicated his approval of the idea in his testimony regarding the tariff on steel products. The trusts, he said, that needed and asked for high protection should be prepared to submit to governmental regulation designed to prevent abuse of their power, and even the prices of their

products might in the absence of competition, be fixed by the state. As for Mr. Carnegie, he holds that, in view of the growth of monopoly, there is no way to protect consumers save through governmental control of prices in trust-controlled industries. He wrote recently as follows in reply to criticism of his "radical" views:

It is not alone in steel that there is today a practical monopoly, tobacco, thread, sugar, oil, even if there be different manufacturers in all of these, have that "sort of an understanding" which creates monopoly.

Assuming that competition is dying and will soon be dead, as far as articles of general consumption are concerned, the prices that a monopoly fixes will be such as will amply protect the small consumers. You need have no fear for that.

We have an illustration of what is coming in the New York Gas Company case, which has just been decided by a court. The gas company has to refund many millions of dollars because its price was too high. A monopoly could not be permitted to make its own price. No doubt the consumer had his remedy because of some charter provision, but the Nation can readily assume such control as will give it proper authority to protect the consumer. * * * Some remedy must be found; I have thought over the subject and considered substitutes, but without success; it always comes back to me that Government control, and that alone, will properly solve the problem.

There is nothing alarming in this; capital is perfectly safe in the gas company, although it is under court control. So will all capital be, although under Government control. It will be impossible for corporations to inflate their capital wrongly, and also to inflate their prices unreasonably. What is reasonable and proper will be for the court to determine.

A few years ago such ideas would have been regarded as too extreme to be entertained by practical men. But "times have changed" in truth when Messrs. Gary and Carnegie profess them and when great trusts are anxious to place themselves under protection and absolute judicial direction.

## The Improvement of Rural Life

Congress, it is to be supposed, will show itself friendlier in the future than it has shown itself in the past to the question of the improvement of industrial and social conditions in rural communities. The friction between it and Mr. Roosevelt prevented sober consideration of the tentative proposals of the so-called Roosevelt commission on farm life, but

enlightened public opinion has evinced deep interest in those proposals and favors the completion of the inquiry. The farmers themselves appreciate the significance of the undertaking, and their suggestions to the commission have been of value and importance. What farmers chiefly complain of is isolation, and the remedy most frequently mentioned better roads. Some would like to see a revival of the old Lyceum, which served as a social center for rural districts in some localities, and the Chautauqua work has been of inestimable profit educationally and socially.

The meetings and conferences that the commission has held, as well as the voluminous correspondence it has called forth, together with the comments of the rural and sociological press, indicate that the essential needs of rural life in the United States are these:

1. A new type of schools—a system of education better adapted to agricultural and allied industries. The "red school house" has done its work, but to-day there is more poetry than fact in the praises of it that continue to be sung. To establish good agricultural colleges or schools here and there is not enough. The whole educational system in the rural areas should be readjusted to fit the young for the life of the farm, the small town, the village, and, moreover, the school building itself should even more than in large, cosmopolitan cities, be used as a center for spiritual, artistic, and social activities.

2. More varied and more systematic co-operation for marketing products, buying supplies and articles of comfort, and introducing labor-saving machinery. There are many farmers' alliances and organizations, but what may be called industrial co-operation has not been cultivated in the United States. If the wage-workers do not yet feel its necessity, the farmers and cattle-raisers and cotton-growers certainly do.

3. Better facilities for communication and transportation, especially in the shape of good highways, rapid extension of rural delivery, a parcels post, postal savings banks, and the development of rural circulating libraries.

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4. The encouragement of individual occupying ownership, of genuine "settlement" of land. Tenant farmers take little interest either in the land or in the activities of the farmers; they are not progressive in any direction. Land monopoly, absentee landlordism, and the holding of large tracts of land for speculation are evils that are assuming serious proportions with us. The inquiry into rural life has not directed as much attention to these things as they deserve, but the farmers themselves are aware of their detrimental effect and have freely testified before the commission in the sense indicated.

It has been made perfectly plain to honest observers that the government cannot do much to improve farm life, though the states can do a great deal in providing the desired educational facilities, in the way of road building, etc. The function of the commission from the first has been to arouse the farmers and start movements among them in the several directions just briefly discussed. Very little will ever be demanded of Congress or of the federal government in addition to what it is already doing through the Agricultural Department. Its sympathy and concern, however, will mean much, in a moral way, to the advanced elements among the farmers, the elements that are to continue the education and bring about the organization recommended by the commission.

### "Organizing" the Theater and Purifying the Drama

Years ago earnest thinkers like Matthew Arnold demanded the "organization" of the theater in the interest of the higher culture of modern democracy. They regarded the stage as a great educational institution, a unifying and elevating force—much as Tolstoy regards art at large—and deplored the fact that it was given over to commercialism and mere entertainment—the latter, to boot, not always of a wholesome, innocent order.

The theater has not been "organized" since that cry was raised, though here and there attempts at building up small

theaters consecrated to true, sincere and fine art, and independent of the consideration of profit have been made. New York is constructing a new theater under the auspices of wealthy and cultured persons, and it is to be endowed so liberally that "the box office" need not be consulted as to commercial value of the plays produced. This institution may become another luxury of fashion and aristocracy, as some fear, or it may prove the beginning of the much-wished for national theater, as others hope. Meantime there are certain tendencies in the commercial theater which are just now exciting vigorous disapproval and protest. They are hardly new but the best critics of the drama agree that in the last four or five years things have been going from bad to worse. Plays that used to be attacked and sometimes suppressed on moral grounds, or on grounds of mere good taste and good sense, are now produced almost without hesitation or fear, and many of them escape challenge. There has been a lowering of standards, of tone and interest in the intelligent and moral aspects of the drama. One downward step leads to another; there is an education downward as well as one upward.

But at last the more self-respecting and serious critics have begun to protest against vulgarity, filth, excessive "realism," so-called, in the drama. Leading churchmen, editors, actors and even theatrical managers are indorsing the agitation for a purer and nobler drama and lending it their pens and voices. A censorship of the stage is threatened in the event of undue opposition on the part of the playwrights and managers who are responsible for the offensive type of plays. Indeed one or two local attempts at such a censorship have already been reported.

In England a censorship of the theater has long existed, but dissatisfaction with it is deep and widespread. The ablest authors and dramatists deny that it has been helpful either to art or to public morals and have repeatedly demanded it abolition. It may be questioned whether an official censorship of the theater would "work" in this country. The effective and permanent remedy is a censorship by pub-

lic opinion and the teachers and guides of the great public. It is said with truth that to denounce a play as filthy and vicious is often to make it pecuniarily successful, and it is a fact that the more unscrupulous managers rejoice in adverse criticism of their productions when the critics, while condemning these incidentally admit that there is cleverness or piquancy or brilliancy or audacity in them. Nevertheless, no manager and no actor or actors can long defy the moral sentiment of the community. A moral boycott of a play would undoubtedly kill it after a short "success of scandal." Editors, critics and influential citizens can purify the drama by ignoring or boldly branding as unworthy the plays that pander to depraved taste or prurient curiosity. Such plays have flourished of late because the public has been indifferent or tolerant. A genuine agitation against immorality and vice on the stage is certain of a very large measure of public support, and the publicity that is so beneficial in politics and industry cannot fail in the domain of art and morals. This is particularly true in the United States, where public opinion is all-powerful and all-sufficient.

### For Uniformity in Legislation

Aside from the controversial question of "federalism" vs. state rights, thoughtful men agree that in many directions uniformity of legislation is at least highly desirable in the United States. There are commissions and associations that devote themselves to particular aspects of this problem—divorce, insurance, commercial law, child labor, and so on. And even where there is little objection to constitutional amendment enlarging federal jurisdiction, the known difficulty of the process of constitutional change discourages even the most earnest reformer.

Confronting these facts the National Civic Federation had added to its various admirable activities a campaign of education in the interest of uniform legislation. The idea at present is not to press particular measures; it is rather, to emphasize the general need, to arouse sentiment and to

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create moral and other support for concrete efforts at uniformity wherever the latter become practical and imperative. A committee of nine is handling the preliminary matters of organization, but a committee of one hundred representative men will be formed and this body will arrange for frequent conferences of business and professional leaders, of legislators and legal experts to discuss ways and means of promoting unity and uniformity. In a statement the Civic Federation said recently:

"The people of the various sections of the country do not sufficiently know each other. It is confidently expected that the meeting for the common good of men from all states and the opportunities such meetings will afford for better understanding and appreciation of the people and the institutions of widely separated sections will bring about an increased sense of unity of the people and a deeper, more intelligent love of country."

There is no gainsaying the proposition that the American people form a nation. Their affairs are becoming daily more and more interstate and national. State rights are a phase of home rule, and if all governmental powers could be concentrated at Washington it would be necessary, not only in the interest of liberty, but also of efficiency, of good administration, to resist such concentration. So stanch a federalist as Senator Elihu Root has recognized this truth. But the preservation of state powers and home rule need not conflict with systematic and intelligent promotion of uniform legislation in a number of directions for the sake of economy, of simplicity, of increased comfort, and increased protection of public interests.

### The Income Tax

The French Chamber of Deputies has at last passed the income tax bill which it had under discussion for some three years. It is yet to be considered by the Senate, and all expect that it will be changed in many ways. But as the upper house of the French parliament is no longer a bulwark of conservatism—it now has a strong Republican and radical majority—it is certain that the essential features of the measure will remain as they are now. The opponents of

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direct taxation of incomes in parliament still denounce the bill as a surrender to Socialism. They call it an act of spoliation and a flagrant instance of abuse of the power of members. It will, they say, intensify class hatred, beget official tyranny and inquisition, cause capital to emigrate to other countries and prove the beginning of the end of Republican institutions. It is plain, however, that no class in France is seriously disturbed by the prospects of decline and ruin thus painted by the pessimists. The bill was adopted by an overwhelming majority of the deputies, including many who spoke and protested against it during the final debate and the newspapers intimate that fear for the general election next year has influenced not a few of the deputies. With the masses the bill is popular; the present ministry had boldly and vigorously pushed it, even threatening resignation in a body whenever the chamber was timid or recalcitrant.

The bill is complicated, providing for progressive taxation, imposing a supplemental tax on high incomes, discriminating in favor of incomes actually earned in industry and commerce, and containing all manner of exemptions, Some of its opponents say that it selects about six hundred thousand or eight hundred thousand Frenchmen and makes of them "fiscal serfs." The argument of the friends of income taxation, progressive and discriminatory, is that all indirect taxes, and especially those on food, drink, etc., bear hardly on the poor; that no taxation is truly proportional which ignores "ability to pay;" that the tendency in all democracies is toward progressive taxation of fortunes and recognition of the distinction between earned and unearned increments. The French income tax will, it is asserted, relieve agriculture, trade, labor and the smaller employer of the state; it will do away with such disgraceful absurdities as the tax on doors and windows which was no doubt in practice a tax on light and air. It will constitute a step toward social justice and equalization of burdens.

Not all the French Socialists are satisfied with the bill that is thus regarded by the conservatives as a concession

to them. One faction, led by Jules Guerde, the follower of Karl Marx, had repudiated it in a manifesto as insufficient, weak, deceptive, and hypocritical. But the moderate Socialists, led by Jaures, the orator and editor, accept the bill as a great step forward. The progressive principle it declares to be the most vital of its features.

As regards the alleged trend in taxation, the French ministry and its supporters are undoubtedly right. In Russia, which is still governed by the landed aristocracy and the official bureaucracy, an income tax has been proposed by the Stolypine cabinet. The finance minister, in a recent speech to the Douma, said that the government could not, with its present resources, plan for the needed extensions and improvements in education, the military budget being of necessity very heavy, but that a progressive tax on incomes, by tapping new sources of revenue, would render feasible the reforms that cannot now be undertaken. Russia's taxes have been paid by the poor, and the budgets henceforth, continued the minister, must be fed by the more fortunate and prosperous classes of the population.

In the United States President Taft, like his predecessor, favors a tax on incomes, especially in the event of a revenue deficiency following the readjustment of the tariff. The former opposition to income taxation has left faint traces here and there but they would be negligible. As for the federal courts, the general feeling is that they would not adhere to their position in the nineties of the last century, when an income tax was held to be a direct tax and unconstitutional unless levied in proportion to the population of the several states. The moral atmosphere has changed in this country, and an income tax would "pass judicial muster" today in all reasonable probability.



### Modernizing a "Poor Law"

It has been felt for a decade or more in England that "the poor law," with the old system of indoor and outside relief, is no longer in harmony with modern ideas of public

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benevolence. The greatest objection to it has been that it neither prevented nor lessened pauperism, but on the contrary, seemed to stimulate it. The poorhouses, it has been said, have gradually been made more and more comfortable —more "inviting" than the home of the poor workman who never applied for public assistance. This, it was argued, was unjust to the industrious and worthy poor and bad for the community as a whole, since the system was taken advantage of by the shiftless and the indolent, who wanted regular meals, warm rooms and certain small comforts, and whose sense of self-respect was too weak to shrink from pauperism as a definite social and political status. As for the outdoor relief in the form of small sums of money, the allowance is as a rule too small to do any real good, to prevent a fresh start or any self help, and very often it is given to persons who are more clamorous and persistent than worthy.

In other words, instead of attacking pauperism as a social disease and trying to eradicate it the old method has treated it as a chronic, hopeless malady and sought to render it tolerable. This, of course, is not in accord with the new ideas of relief and aid, and it is felt that the time has come to establish a new system of poor relief. A commission was appointed in 1907 to consider the question, and it has just made its report. This document is considered as radical, since it recommends sweeping and fundamental changes, but in view of the adoption of an old-age pension scheme in Great Britain, the proposed changes, which Parliament is expected to order into effect by appropriate legislation, can be made without too great a dislocation of public charity.

The new idea is to give a family substantial help in a crisis and set it on its feet again; to insure a good education to the young and enable them to obtain steady employment in trades instead of casual jobs of the kind that leads to insufficiency and dependence. The old and infirm, instead of being lodged in poorhouses, are to be left in their homes, or with kinsfolk, and supported by the pensions for the aged. The "workhouse" is to disappear at last.

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It is estimated by experts that Great Britain has been spending about $8,000,000 annually on poor relief. These millions are divided among a mass of about 1,750,000 persons. Excluding the lunatics and the casuals, nearly half the chronic paupers are women, the majority of whom could probably live on pensions with their relatives or friends. As regards the poor of the better class, the abolition of the poorhouse would hardly affect them at all, since they have avoided this refuge with its associations and atmosphere. The cost of improved and modernized poor relief, it is believed, will be smaller than that of the old system, which of late has represented a tax of about $1.75 annually per head of the population.

### Crises and "The Peace of Europe"

It has been truly and wisely said that when the great powers do not wish to fight no complication or trouble is serious enough to necessitate war. In the last several months this observation has been repeatedly illustrated. The Balkan problem appeared very threatening indeed when Austria and Bulgaria took their respective steps in derogation of Turkey's rights and in violation of the Treaty of Berlin. A great European war seemed almost unavoidable to the average student of "high politics." But none of the great powers wanted war, while the new rulers of Turkey, earnestly devoted to internal reforms, perceived the danger to constitutionalism that lay in grave foreign difficulties and resolved to make the sacrifices that the actual situation demanded of them.

The Austro-Turkish question, involving the formal settlement of the status of the provinces that Austria had "annexed" by decree, was disposed of by direct and reasonably friendly negotiations between the two powers, without a general European conference. Bosnia and Herzegovina are to remain Austrian provinces, and Turkey has agreed to accept pecuniary compensation for the loss of her nominal sovereignty over them. The question which arose after

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Bulgaria had proclaimed her complete independence of Turkey was more difficult, but it, too, yielded to prolonged negotiations in which Russia, as the friend of the little Slav people and the well-wisher of Turkey, took a prominent part. Bulgaria finally agreed to pay Turkey a substantial sum for state domain and properities which fell under her control with independence. In reality this payment was a material "consideration" or salve for the moral wounds she had inflicted on Turkey. The solution of these problems was unfortunately retarded by a ministerial crisis at Constantinople. The parliamentary majority suddenly lost confidence in the grand vizier and "grand old man," Kiamil Pasha, and overthrew his ministry. He was too conservative for the "Young Turk" party, the party that had prepared the revolution of last year and put an end to the regime of tyranny and spoliation. He was charged with breaches of the Constitution and with altogether too tender a regard for the sensibilities of the Sultan and his old clique. A new cabinet was formed, with Hilmi Pasha, former governor-general of Macedonia, as grand vizier. Hilmi Pasha had never posed as a reformer, and in Macedonia he constantly obstructed the remedial measures forced on Turkey by the European "concert." His selection by the Young Turks for the premiership was a great surprise to many. It was explained, however, by some observers that Hilmi Pasha is an opportunist, not a fanatic, and he can be depended upon to stand by the new regime. He is also, moreover, a stanch nationalist, and the Young Turk party is both nationalist and liberal. It believes in free institutions, but it also believes in Turkish supremacy and in a strong and united Turkey. As the various races and nationalities of the empire are already beginning to assert their claims to autonomy, the Young Turks may feel that firmness is necessary in a ministry that knows where to draw the line between intolerance and reasonable freedom under a unified, national government.

These several Balkan crises" were followed by an ominous Austro-Servian conflict. Servia's aspirations and

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hopes had been rudely disturbed by the annexation of Bosnia. She had found herself "isolated" and within the power of her "big" neighbor, the Dual Empire. She wanted as her King said, "a place in the Sun," a modest position of political and economic independence. This she could not obtain without a strip of territory giving her access to the Adriatic Sea, and such a strip she could not get except at the expense of either Austria or Turkey. Her national assembly adopted "ringing" resolutions demanding "territorial compensation" for the annexation of Bosnia by Austria as well as permanent autonomy for the province. This offended the Vienna court and ministry, and the "crisis" ensued. Servia proceeded to mobilize her forces and order military supplies. Of course, Servia could not hope to defeat Austria in an armed conflict, she could not but know that war might be fatal to her independence. But secretly she counted on the aid of Russia, the "historic defender of the oppressed Slav nations," and public opinion in Russia did in truth seem for a time to lean toward a policy of intervention and challenge. Russia, however, cannot now undertake another war in the Balkans. The disastrous conflict with Japan is too recent; her domestic affairs are by no means in a satisfactory state; foreign loans for warlike purposes would not be easy to float, especially if European sentiment were hostile to the enterprise. Besides, Austria has allies, and they would come to her assistance. Russia's ally, France, would not dare to be forced into war for the supposed benefit of Servia at Russia's behest. In short, no power wishes to enter into war with a light heart, without really urgent necessity. This accounts for the "happy endings" in all the recent crises and for the optimism of the sound students of world politics. The peace of Europe has been gravely threatened, to be sure, but the vital interests of the great powers impose peace and attention to industry and internal development. The vital interests prevail over phases, diplomatic intrigues, personal jealousies, statesmen's ambitions and preferences, popular fancies and animosities.

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## NOTE AND COMMENT.

It is true, as I have endeavored to demonstrate heretofore, that by far the greater part of our national expenditures are for the military side of our Government on account of wars that have occurred or in preparing for wars that may come. Considering the subject from the standpoint of appropriation made at this session from which expenditures are to be made we find that five great annual supply bills are devoted solely to these expenses, as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Army | $101,197,470.34 |
| Fortifications | 8,170,111.00 |
| Military Academy | 2,531,521.33 |
| Navy | 136,935,199.05 |
| Pension | 160,908,000.00 |

In addition the sundry civil, the legislative, executive and judicial and even District of Columbia bills carry considerable sums chargeable to military expenditures, and under the chapter of "permanent appropriations" there are also large amounts directly chargeable to war or the results of war, including interest and sinking fund charges on account of our Civil War debt. These sums, together with the amount for the army and navy in the general deficiency act, all amounting to about $116,000,000, added to the amount carried by the five bills I have mentioned, bring the total of these appropriations that are chargeable to this session of Congress up to the enormous amount of $525,742,301.72, which, deducted from $1,044,014,298.23, the whole apparent sum of appropriations for the session, leaves only about 50 per cent. of our total proposed expenditures to be devoted to civil government.

The growth of appropriations for military purposes, including only those for the military and naval establishments carried in the army and navy acts and without reference to the large sums for pensions, fortifications and other incidents of war to which I have referred, for the eight year period prior to the Spanish war contrasted with the eight year period ending with the fiscal year 1910 affords a startling exhibit that I commend to the thoughtful consideration of my countrymen:

ARMY APPROPRIATIONS.

1891-1898.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1891 | $ 24,206,471.79 |
| 1892 | 24,613,529.19 |
| 1893 | 24,308,499.82 |
| 1894 | 24,225,639.78 |
| 1895 | 23,592,884.68 |
| 1896 | 23,252,608.09 |
| 1897 | 23,278,402.73 |
| 1898 | 23,129,344.30 |
| Total | $190,607,380.38 |

Average annual appropriations, $23,825,922.54.

1903-1910.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1903 | $ 91,730,136.41 |
| 1904 | 77,888,752.83 |
| 1905 | 77,070,300.88 |
| 1906 | 70,396,631.64 |
| 1907 | 71,817,165.08 |
| 1908 | 78,634,582.75 |

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| | |
|---|---|
| 1909 | 95,382,247.61 |
| 1910 | 101,197,470.34 |
| Total | $664,117,287.54 |

Average annual appropriations, $83,014,660.84.

NAVAL APPROPRIATIONS.

1891-1898.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1891 | $ 24,136,035.53 |
| 1892 | 32,541,654.78 |
| 1893 | 23,543,385.00 |
| 1894 | 22,104,061.38 |
| 1895 | 25,327,126.72 |
| 1896 | 29,416,245.31 |
| 1897 | 30,562,660.95 |
| 1898 | 33,003,234.19 |
| Total | $220,634,403.86 |

Average annual appropriations, $27,579,300.48.

1903-1910.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1903 | $ 78,856,363.13 |
| 1904 | 81,876,791.43 |
| 1905 | 97,505,140.94 |
| 1906 | 100,336,679.94 |
| 1907 | 102,091,670.27 |
| 1908 | 98,958,507.50 |
| 1909 | 122,663,885.47 |
| 1910 | 136,935,199.05 |
| Total | $819,224,237.73 |

Average annual appropriation, $102,403,029.71.

It will be seen from these figures that the average annual appropriations for the army have leaped from less than $24,000,000 a year for the eight year period immediately preceding the Spanish war to an average of more than $83,000,000 for the eight year period ending with the appropriations made by this Congress and that during the same periods the annual average for naval appropriations has increased from a little more than $27,500,000 to more than $102,400,000.

The increase in the sums Congress has voted for the navy for these same periods amounts to $598,333.87, a sum greatly in excess of the total appropriations for the support of the whole Government for any fiscal year prior to that of 1898.

The combined excess for the army and navy thus exhibited for the eight year periods named amounts to $1,072,099,741.03, a sum exceeding by more than $158,000,000 the total interest bearing debt of the United States.—*From a Speech of James A. Tawney, House of Representatives.*

* * * *

"When a gentleman are looking for Peace he buy a dash-hound, which are a sweet, low-down dog with a tame appetite. When a gentleman are looking for War he buy a bull-dog, which are a earnest mammal with a Roosevelt temperature. A Nation hunting for Peace with a Navy are like a gentleman with a bull-dog trying to make friends. He might, but will he?"—*From the Letters of a Japanese School-boy, in New York Times.*

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# Internationalism as an Ideal for the Youth of America*

By W. T. Stead

Editor of *The Review of Reviews,* London.

WHAT are the political ideals which glow resplendent before the eyes of the youth of America?

Perhaps it would be better to ask first are there any political ideals which have a pull upon the hearts of American youth?

To many it is to be feared the conjunction of the word ideal with the word politics will seem grotesque. Politics as they are often understood are the negation of the ideal. To speak of idealism in politics is like speaking of virtue in sin. To most men now-a-days politics is little better than the regulating of the rush of the swine to the feeding trough so that the rival herd shall not get all the swill.

But the soul of youth is nourished on ideals, and the zest of life lies in the hope of realizing them.

*The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN; the second article, by the same author, "Danger Points About the Globe," in the October number. In November, "The Story of the Peace Movement," by Benjamin F. Trueblood; December, "Armies the Real Promoters of Peace," by Col. W. C. Church; January, "The Human Harvest," by David Starr Jordan; and "International Aspects of Socialism," by A. N. Simons; February, "What is International Law?" by Henry Wade Rogers; and "The Sanction of International Law," by Elihu Root; March, "Modern Economic Forces Against War," Charles A. Conant; April, "The Family of Nations in Conference at the Hague," William I. Hull.



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This faith in some ideal Good
Under whatever mortal name it masks
Freedom, Law, Country, * * *
Shall be a wisdom that we set above
All other skills and gifts to culture dear.

The best service the University, School, the Teacher, can confer upon the student is to kindle in his soul a passion to realize some lofty ideal. What ideal is there at the present day capable of forcing the imagination or the youth of America?

Their forefathers lived and labored and many of them were glad to die in the service of the ideal of national independence. The following generation was not less keen to spend and be spent in the service of the ideal of national union. What is the ideal which the Twentieth Century offers to those who will be the Masters of the Republic for the next half century?

No internal foe threatens the liberty, independence or integrity of the United States. No internal foe threatens to destroy the union which links in a peaceful federation all the sovereign states between the Atlantic and the Pacific.

Ideals are usually born of an acute realization of the dangers or disadvantages of the Actual. There are two such ideals confronting the youth of the world common to every land although appealing with varying degrees of force to different nations. One is the thirst for a more complete realization of fraternity and equality in the possession of this world's goods, which is crudely described as Socialism. The other is a not less divine aspiration after a more complete realization of justice and brotherhood in the external relations of States which is usually labelled Internationalism. Of these two Socialism appeals with greater force to the students of Russia (where nearly every College boy or girl is a Socialist) than it does to American students. It is quite otherwise with Internationalism. This is an ideal which should appeal more forcibly to the youth of America than to the youth of any other nation.

The world progresses with ever increasing velocity to-

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wards the ideal of internationalism. Steam and Electricity have made all the nations of the world next door neighbors. What the locomotive and the steamship have left undone the aeroplane will finish. Frontiers will be wiped out and almost before we know where we are mankind will find itself a political unit. Unfortunately progress in mechanical contrivances for the application of the discoveries of science has far outstripped the progress that has been made by the nations in the improvement of their international political relations. To speed up political progress towards international justice and friendship is the most urgent duty lying before the human race.

There are some who imagine the ideal of International Peace will stimulate our youth to energetic action. It will do no such thing. No one will ever die for Peace, and an ideal for which men do not care to shed their blood has no magic lure for the human heart. Peace is negative, the mere absence of war. Peace is as admirable as happiness, but if either is made the objective of life we neither generate enthusiasm not attain our aim. Peace is a by-product of international justice. For Justice men will die. The ideal of national unity filled the youth of Italy with a divine thirst for martyrdom. If this was possible when the ideal was only that of the unity of a peninsula, how much greater the appeal to the heart and the imagination that is made by the Unity of the Planet?

I wish I could rouse the youth of America to a realizing sense of the splendor of the opportunity which is theirs today, and still more to a sense of the immense responsibility that lies upon their shoulders. Towards the International World State other nations are groping blindly, wandering hither and thither without compass, without guide. The Americans walk confidently along a familiar path to a clearly defined goal. It is for the youth of America to send the American idea sweeping in triumph round the globe.

What is the American political idea? It is simplicity itself. It is the equal sovereignty of every independent State, and the federation of all these Sovereign States in

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a great federal pact, the provisions of which are interpreted by a central Supreme Court and enforced in case of need by the combined forces of all the federated States. It ought to be regarded as the proudest privilege of young America to secure for the disunited States of the world the political advantages which are enjoyed by the United States of America. To them much has been given, from them much will be expected.

When the American idea fired the imagination of the French they were not content with making their own Revolution. They were seized with a sacred zeal to make liberty, fraternity, and equality the common possession of all the nations of Europe. I do not wish to suggest that young America should aspire to make the Stars and Stripes make the tour of the world as the Tricolor made the tour of Europe. But I do wish that Americans would realize their pride of place and apply themselves seriously to expedite the federation of the world.

For the federation of the world is inevitably the Americanization of the World, the recasting of the Old World systems in the new mould of the American idea. Here is a world ideal worthy the ambition of the proudest patriot. I would venture to suggest as I have more than once suggested before that every American College and University should recognize the duty of contributing its share to the Americanization of the World. An American Collegiate Mission appealing in the first place to the Collegiate youth of the other countries to coöperate in federating the world would not merely have a great effect abroad. It would react powerfully upon America. It would give the youth of America something to dream of, to pray for, to labor at and if need be to die for. For the International World State, like all smaller federations, will not come into being without those pangs of labor which we call war. But we shall but fight to end our fighting, for we shall replace the armed anarchy of the nations by the established order of a World State based on liberty and defended by law administered by a Supreme Court of Justice and Arbitration.

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That is the ideal to which I wish the youth of America to turn their eyes. It is infinitely more glorious than that of Imperial conquest or of political domination. And it is preëminently the work that lies to the hand of the Americans for they alone have practised on a Continental scale the doctrines which had heretofore been confined to the closets of philosophers or the laboratory of the Swiss Republic.

# The Literature of the Peace Movement*

By Edwin D. Mead

THE Bishop of Hereford, who came to the United States in 1904 to attend the International Peace Congress in Boston, has been emphasizing in England in addresses since that time the importance of the contributions of the United States to the peace movement. He has said that the United States itself is in his judgment the greatest and most influential peace society in the world, because it illustrates over a broader area and with greater power than is anywhere else the case the beneficent operation of the three great principles of interstate free trade, an interstate court, and federation, which are all that is necessary to extend to international affairs to give us precisely the kind of organ-

*EDITOR'S NOTE. All publications, books and pamphlets mentioned in this article may be obtained from The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y., to which orders, subscriptions, and requests should be sent. In view of the unusually comprehensive treatment of the subject in THE CHAUTAUQUAN magazine this year the Press is well qualified for such service. Dr. Hale's authoritative contribution concludes our "Friendship of Nations" series (for the full list see page 333.) This article was written at our request, not only for its bird's-eye view of the movement, but for the very practical purpose of indicating the most available supplementary material for readers, circles, libraries, etc. It will be found especially helpful in making preparations for the C. L. S. C. memorial day known as "International Peace Day" on May 18, celebrating the establishment of The Hague Tribunal. (See also C. L. S. C. Round Table in this magazine.) THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S service will be found equally useful to churches and other societies which plan to observe Peace Day.

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ized world that we want. He has also been telling his English brethren that he counts it a capital misfortune that they are not more familar than most of them are with the writings of Sumner and Channing and the other great leaders of the peace movement in the United States during the last century. We in America know too well that this unfortunate unfamiliarity is not confined to Englishmen.

In discussing for the readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN the literature of the peace movement, and in commending to them the best books to read, there is really no better place to begin than with the considerations and the books which the honored Bishop of Hereford, the ablest and most influential champion of the cause among English churchmen, commends to his English friends. It would be hard to name two books devoted to the peace cause which state the general case better than Sumner's "Addresses on War" and Channing's "Discourses on War," the two American volumes which the Bishop of Hereford refers to most conspicuously. Sumner's addresses especially, although the most of them were given more than half a century ago, remain today the most powerful impeachment of the war system, the most persuasive plea for international justice, and the most impressive history of the peace movement, which we have in equally brief compass. The volume of Sumner published in the International Library, which brings his peace addresses together, contains three of these addresses. The first was his Fourth of July oration in Boston in 1845, on "The True Grandeur of Nations;" the second was the address delivered four years later upon "The Abolition of the War System in the Commonwealth of Nations"—an address which, while not so famous as the earlier address, is in many respects a more thorough and illuminating study; and the third is the address which he gave in many places in 1870 upon "The Duel between France and Germany," tracing the history and decay of the duel between individuals in civilization, and showing how war is the duel between nations, having much the same history, being grounded in similar prejudices and false ideas of honor, and destined

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similarly to pass away before the development of the spirit and institutions of justice. The student who masters these three memorable addresses will find himself at the heart of the peace movement, with its history well outlined and its problems clearly defined.

Channing's "Discourses on War" represent the highest position which has been taken by the American pulpit in this great crusade; and there is nothing which the ministers and members of Christian churches can more profitably read as declaring the right attitude of religious men concerning peace and war. They were the first noteworthy discourses upon the subject in our pulpit; and they have a further historical interest in the fact that it was in Channing's study in Boston, in the Christmas week of 1815, that the Massachusetts Peace Society was organized, Channing standing side by side with Noah Worcester in the organization in its early years. One of the addresses included in the Channing volume published in the International Library is the tribute to the memory of Worcester. All of the discourses are informed by the clear and resolute thinking, moral fervor and definite application of conscience to public affairs which inspired Channing's utterances in every field of social and religious life.

If the Christian Church and its ministers in America, as in the rest of the world, have not always done their duty as concerns war and the military spirit when the nation has been under temptation, but have too often followed the multitude to do evil, and have condoned and whitewashed wrong when wrong became dominant and fashionable, many of the ablest and most influential leaders in the movement for international justice have still been men in the pulpit. One can never forget such sermons as those of Theodore Parker, such essays as Bushnell's on "The Growth of Law," or such addresses as that by Reuben Thomas (published by the American Peace Society) upon "The War System in the Light of Civilization and Religion." The Nestor of the peace cause in America today is our great and revered preacher, Edward Everett Hale; and the students of the

peace movement must not neglect his writings and general advice in behalf of arbitration and the better organization of the world. I think it was he who first said that the time was near when a nation which had a Secretary of War and no Secretary of Peace would not be considered fit for civilized society; and I think that it was his church which first organized a department of international justice as one of its regular instrumentalities. If I were to name the man in the American pulpit today who seems to me the Channing of the movement with us, it would be Charles E. Jefferson of the Broadway Tabernacle in New York. The learning, penetration, sharp exposure of fallacy, prophetic statesmanship and religious uplift of his pulpit utterances and published papers upon peace and war during the last half dozen years have been noteworthy indeed. All religious men should help extend their influence; and here they are commended to students of the movement at this hour. No one has more searchingly exposed the weakness and absurdity of the frequent claim that great armaments tend to preserve the peace, and no one has pointed out with greater power the constant and dangerous menace, especially to a republic, of a large professional military class. Mr. Jefferson's article, "The Delusion of Militarism," in the March number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, since reprinted in pamphlet form, well illustrates his pungency and power.

We must never forget the religious origin of the peace movement. As a distinctly organized movement, it began here in America, and began with Christian men. The first peace society in the world was the New York Peace Society, founded in the summer of 1815 by David Low Dodge; and membership in the Christian church was a condition of membership in that first Peace Society. We should doubtless all agree in accounting this an unwise condition, but it is indicative of the sacred character which those men attached to their cause. The Massachusetts Peace Society was founded at the end of the same year, 1815, by Worcester* and Channing, both of them Christian ministers.

*See portrait in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March.

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Both Dodge and Worcester had before this published arraignments of the war system. Dodge's "War Inconsistent with the Religion of Jesus Christ" has been recently republished, with a biographical introduction, in the International Library; and Worcester's famous old pamphlet of 1814, "A Solemn Review of the Custom of War," which had an immense circulation and exerted a profound influence in its day, may be obtained for a few cents from the American Peace Society.

These two famous works by Dodge and Worcester are the early classics of the peace movement in America; and while Dodge's work is old-fashioned in its style and method, and both works lack that emphasis upon international organization which we find a little later in William Ladd and which finally created The Hague Conferences, it is surprising how modern they are in much, and how complete their impeachment still remains of the folly, waste, and wickedness of the war system. The most powerful recent impeachment of the system upon these grounds is Rev. Walter Walsh's "Moral Damage of War," an impassioned but also most detailed and definite work, first called out in Great Britain by the Boer War, but as salutary and necessary for Americans as for Englishmen to read. A passionate exposure of the war system of a quite different character but equally impressive is the famous story, "Lay Down Your Arms," by the Baroness von Suttner.*

Immanuel Kant, in his great tractate on "Eternal Peace," published in 1795, just after the launching of the American republic, declared that universal peace and consequent disarmament would come, and come only, with universal self-government; because he believed that justice could come only with freedom, and peace only with justice. In view of this association, which I think is valid, of peace and international justice with free institutions, it was no accident by which the organized peace movement began in this republic. The Bishop of Hereford's judgment had historical as well as other grounds. It was not accidental, but log-

*Quoted in Library Shelf in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March.

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ical, that the great founders of the republic, Washington and Franklin and Jefferson, should be conspicuous champions in their time of peace principles and international fraternity. Their utterances on this subject were memorable, and we do not recur to them half often enough. In my little work on "The Principles of the Founders," originally the Fourth of July address in Boston in 1903, I brought together many of these impressive utterances; and as I do not know of any other place where they are so easily accessible, I may be pardoned for referring to this. The words of Franklin—who went so far as to declare that "there never was a good war nor a bad peace"—were the most important of these; and these words are brought together more fully, I think completely, in one of the Old South leaflets (No. 162), "Franklin on War and Peace."

This is a fitting place to say that several of the Old South leaflets are devoted to subjects relating to the history of the peace movement, among them being: the First Book of Dante's "Monarchia," the Introduction of Grotius' "Rights of War and Peace," William Penn's "Plan for the Peace of Europe," Elihu Burritt's "Address on a Congress of Nations;" and The Hague Arbitration Convention of 1899. These leaflets are accompanied by careful historical and bibliographical notes; and as their cost is merely nominal, they are calculated to be of service to many.*

I once gave a course of lectures to the Boston teachers at the Old South Meeting-house on "Men who have Worked to Organize the World," with the following several themes: Dante's Dream of a Universal Empire, Henry the Fourth and "The Great Design," Hugo Grotius and "The Rights of War and Peace," William Penn's Plan for the Peace of Europe, Immanuel Kant's "Eternal Peace," Charles Sumner and "The True Grandeur of Nations," and the Peace Conference at The Hague. It will be noted that this survey covers six centuries and representatives of six nations, wit-

*The Old South Leaflets, which are sold for five cents each, are published by the Directors of the Old South Work, Old South Meeting-house, Boston. The International Library, frequently referred to here, is the most important.

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nessing to the fact that from the time of the first modern man, if we agree to call Dante that, to our time, prophetic men have been rising in successive centuries and in every land to preach the gospel of a united world, which gospel at last in our own way the Hague Conferences are reducing to law. Sumner's learned and powerful addresses, to which I have referred, present all of these great pioneers in their true places and relations. Greatest and most influential of all in the peace movement was Hugo Grotius,* who in his monumental work upon "The Rights of War and Peace"—of which Andrew D. White well said, in his pregnant address at Delft at the time of the first Hague Conference, that "of all works not claiming divine inspiration, that book has proved the greatest blessing to humanity"—founded the science of international law. For the ordinary student of the peace movement, the Introduction to this great work, reprinted in the leaflet mentioned above, will be sufficient; the more thorough student wishing to go further will find Whewell's translation the best.

It is an interesting coincidence by which the great founder of the science of international law was a native of the land, so heroic during his own lifetime in the struggle for freedom, in which two centuries and a half after his death was to meet the first of those momentous Hague Conferences —forerunners of the real "Parliament of Man," if not indeed themselves to be regarded as the first sessions of that Parliament—which have advanced in a measure not less than revolutionary the two great ends for which he labored, the amelioration of the cruelties of war and the promotion of international arbitration.

The literature of the peace movement in America for the seventy years following the founding by William Ladd** in 1828 of the American Peace Society, in which the then existing local societies were merged, is interesting chiefly for its constant and remarkable anticipations of the Hague Conferences. Dr. Trueblood, the present secretary of the

*See Library Shelf in February CHAUTAUQUAN.
**See portrait in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March.

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American Peace Society, has rightly said of William Ladd that he was "the man who saw most clearly the ripeness of the time and felt the necessity of bringing into coöperation all the scattered forces that had begun to work for the peace of the world—a man who will one day be everywhere reckoned among the foremost of the creators of civilization;" and James Brown Scott, one of the members of our American delegation at the second Hague Conference, has said that all of the cardinal features of the Hague program were fully and powerfully formulated by William Ladd sixty years before. Ladd's remarkable chapter in the volume of "Prize Essays on a Congress of Nations," published by the American Peace Society in 1840, should be consulted. The address of Elihu Burritt, above referred to, at the International Peace Congresses at Brussels and Paris in 1848 and 1849, repeat the great demands of William Ladd—for a Congress of Nations, which should develop and codify international law and create an International Court to apply it. This was precisely, as will be recognized, the program and problem of the Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907; and it was popularly spoken of in Europe in the days of Ladd and Burritt as "the American plan."

The thought of supplanting war by arbitration and of constructive measures for the better organization of the world was by no means confined, in the long period between Dante's "Monarchia" and the call for the first Hague Conference, to the few great thinkers mentioned above. These names are only representative. Dr. W. Evans Darby, the secretary of the English Peace Society, has prepared a large volume entitled "International Tribunals," which is a collection of the various schemes which have been propounded through the centuries. The work is a monument of critical and painstaking research, and is made more valuable by the complete list and account which it contained of all the treaties or cases of international arbitration, beginning with the Jay treaty of 1794. The writings of Dr. Darby's predecessor, Henry Richard, hold a high place in the history of the peace movement in England. Two recent English books

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should be warmly commended: John A. Hobson's "Imperialism," which is the most searching survey known to me of those commercial tendencies and temptations which are the chief causes of war in our time; and Francis W. Hirst's "The Arbiter in Council," which in a singularly skilful and cogent manner, in the form of a seven days' discussion by a group of friends, considers the present great international issues. A Washington friend recently wrote me that he distributed twenty copies of this impressive work as Christmas presents. He could not well have done better. There is no better English book on the subject. It is all the better because there is so much of the inspiration of Cobden in it. Of all Englishmen who have served the peace cause, Richard Cobden was the most powerful and most influential; and his economic arguments have special force today. The careful student will not fail to read the speeches and essays on peace and war in the four volumes of his published works; and those who have not time for this should at least read John Morley's Life of Cobden.

I make slight reference here to books not written in English, for I assume that most of my readers read only English. The peace literature of all the leading European nations is of great extent and value; and the most important existing bibliography of the movement is that prepared by Senator Henri Lafontaine of Belgium, the present president of the International Peace Bureau at Berne.

I have said that Grotius' "Rights of War and Peace" was the greatest single contribution to the movement for international justice. From Grotius' time to ours no other work has struck so powerful a blow at the war system as Jean de Bloch's "Future of War."* As the result of almost unexampled research into present world conditions, Bloch with powerful reasoning brought home to the governments and peoples of Europe the bankruptcy and ruin to which they were hastening if the present system of war and crushing armaments were not supplanted by the legal and rational settlement of international differences. His startling work,

*See a review in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for April.

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published in 1897, was undoubtedly one of the promptings to the call of the first Hague Conference by the Czar of Russia the next year. The whole of this great six-volume work has never been translated into English; but the essential part of it is published in one volume in the International Library.*

With the Hague Conference there opens an entirely new era in the peace movement. The nations have at last definitely and officially undertaken the task of organizing the world. The movement in the last ten years has described a course essentially like that described by the anti-slavery movement in the United States in the decade between 1850 and 1860. That movement for a generation had been a great moral movement; but because the evil which it confronted was so monstrous and menacing, it inevitably became a political movement—and won. Never did the slave power seem so arrogant or strong as in 1852, at the beginning of its end. Never was the big navy craze, with its attendant extravagances, so monstrous and seemingly strong as at this hour. Yet the great armaments are doomed. The present Anglo-German situation is the *reductio ad absurdum* of the common silly argument that the way to ensure peace is to multiply battleships. Every new *Dreadnaught* added to either the German or British navy is found to be, so far from a new bond of peace, a new occasion of friction and danger; and men are waking everywhere to the perception that all the monstrous navies are more a provocation than a defence, and that courts must take place of armaments. The peace movement has become political; and 2,500 members of the parliaments of the various nations are now leagued together in the Interparliamentary Union, coöperating in those measures which shall gradually supplant war by law.

Dr. Trueblood's "Federation of the World" treats the long and varied efforts of the past distinctly as leading up to the culmination at The Hague. Hon. John W. Foster's

*A pamphlet by the present writer upon Bloch and "The Future of War" can be procured from the American Peace Society.

"Arbitration and the Hague Court" is a manual of the arbitration movement informed by the same spirit. Bridgman's "World Organization" is an impressive showing of the remarkable advance already actually made in the development of an international constitution, with judicial, legislative, and executive features. If there be among my readers some who have time now but for two books among the many mentioned here, let the two be Sumner and Bridgman.

The history of the First Hague Conference was written for American readers by Frederick W. Hollis, the secretary of the American delegation; and the section relating to this Conference in Andrew D. White's autobiography should not be neglected. An admirable work upon "The Two Hague Conferences" by Professor William I. Hull has recently been published in the International Library; and this is the best work for the general reader. Professor James Brown Scott has brought together in a handsome volume the Texts of the Peace Conference at The Hague, including all of the conventions and related official documents, constituting an invaluable book of reference for the careful student. Among the valuable pamphlets published by the Association for International Conciliation are two upon the Work of the Second Hague Conference, by Baron d'Estournelles and Hon. David Jayne Hill, and James Brown Scott; and these will be valued both by those who have not and those who have time for the larger works.

A body of literature becoming every year richer and of greater moment is that made up of the reports of the important Peace Congresses and of the meetings of the Interparliamentary Union—which latter is undoubtedly the strongest organized force working today for the supplanting of war by arbitration and justice. The American Peace Society furnishes at trifling cost the reports of the two International Peace Congresses which have up to this date met in the United States—the Chicago Congress of 1893, and the Boston Congress of 1904; as also the larger and more costly report of our first National Peace Congress, the New York Congress of 1907, which was undoubtedly the

largest peace demonstration yet seen in the world. The reports of the two memorable Conferences on International Arbitration held at Washington in 1896 and 1904 are of high importance, but now unfortunately to be found only in the large libraries. The annual reports of the Lake Mohonk Conferences on International Arbitration (that of 1908 was the fourteenth) constitute a veritable library of information and vital thought upon this great cause; and these reports are generously furnished to students of the movement.

The American Society of International Law was initiated at Mohonk four years ago; and its able *Journal of International Law* is rich in articles of the highest value for every man concerned in the progress of world organization. At Mohonk also strong impulse was given to the movement for the notable new work for peace in our schools and colleges, which already has a considerable literature. The year-books of the federation of the Cosmopolitan Clubs which are multiplying so rapidly in our colleges and universities are big with promise. The new American School Peace League has rapidly advanced to a position of remarkable usefulness and significance; and every teacher in the country should have its little manual, which may be had for the asking from the secretary, Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, 405 Marlborough Street, Boston. Mrs. Lucia Ames Mead's "Patriotism and the New Internationalism" is a manual for teachers, prepared especially to help in arranging programs for the observance of the 18th of May, the anniversary of the opening of the first Hague Conference, now, with the endorsement of the National Educational Association and the Association of School Superintendents, becoming so common in the schools. Mrs. Mead's compact little "Primer of the Peace Movement" is of service not only for teachers but for everybody else desiring to learn at a glance what the movement is, what it has already achieved and what it is aiming at.

Nothing is more important here than to show the young people in the schools how our great American poets—Emerson, Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, Holmes—have all been

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prophets of this great cause. Their inspired lines in its behalf constitute a precious section of the literature of the movement.

The remarkable deepening of devotion to the peace movement in the last ten years has given birth to many books touching special aspects of the cause with noteworthy penetration and power, which works cannot here be even enumerated. David Starr Jordan's "Blood of the Nation" and "The Human Harvest"* reveal the frightful and paralyzing drain of the war system upon all the best forces and resources of mankind. Jane Addams' "Newer Ideals of Peace"* shows how intricately involved are the problems of militarism with the pressing industrial problems which now everywhere confront the world.

Much of the literature of the international movement which is really of most practical and immediate value to many people is not in the form of books at all, but in pamphlets and brief leaflets. I have referred to certain pamphlets on the Second Hague Conference, published by the Association for International Conciliation. This is an organization founded by Baron d'Estournelles de Constant of France. President Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia University is the head of the American branch of the Association. The pamphlet publications of the latter are invaluable, already extensive, and rapidly multiplying; and these pamphlets and lists of them are sent freely to all persons applying to the secretary of the Association (Substation 84, New York City). Andrew Carnegie's address on "A League of Peace," bringing out with power how, as the commanding cause of the preceding time was the war against slavery, the commanding cause of our time is the war against war, has had a circulation of hundreds of thousands. The American Peace Society publishes a great wealth of pamphlets on the Cost of War, the Limitation of Armaments, the Fallacies of Militarism, Reason why our Navy should not be Enlarged, the Truth about Japan, the Interparliamentary Union and its Work, the History of the

*Published by the Chautauqua Press.

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Peace Movement in America, the Organization of the World, etc.—about which readers can learn in the pages of *The Advocate of Peace*, the able monthly journal of the Society.

And this suggests my last word. It is that everybody who is really in earnest about this most commanding cause of our time, everybody who really desires to keep informed about its progress and its literature, should join the American Peace Society (31 Beacon Street, Boston; there is a merely nominal fee of one dollar), if only for the sake of regularly receiving its journal. For here one will learn month by month of the latest things done for the cause the world over, of the significant debates and official actions at Washington and London and Paris and Berlin, of the programs and proceedings of congresses and conventions, of every strong new speech or article or pamphlet or book. This in a movement so vital and political as the peace movement is imperative. It is important indeed for the student of the movement to go into the library; but it is most essential for him to keep in touch with the situation at the present hour.

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# A Peace Perspective

By Edward Everett Hale

THE Editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN asks me to close this series of articles with a review of the discussion of the subject from my "personal perspective." If I am to do this I will begin with an anecdote which dates as far back as 1870.

I do not know who gave the name to the French *Revue des Deux Mondes* which we used to call the best magazine in the world. I do not know why it was named so. But I do know that when I was appointed, in 1870, to edit a new review which was not to be afraid to tell the truth, I translated the French name and named our magazine *"The Two Worlds."* The proof sheet of the cover came to me with those words upon it. I said to myself, this title will make no end of trouble to us. We are at work that God's kingdom may come on the earth. We are at work that the Law of God may be the law of man. Why should we say two worlds when our object is that there shall be but one? Of my own act, therefore, without consulting any committees, I changed the title to *"Old and New."* We were to interpret the old so that it should give its infinite lessons to the new. We were to interpret the reign of God in the Lord's prayer, so that it should control the policies, the invention, the education, the social life of man. Man is child of God. God is our Father. This is to be the oracle of the new magazine and the new magazine shall make it as a fun-

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EDITOR'S NOTE.—Edward Everett Hale, now chaplain of the Senate of the United States, has been aptly called the Nestor of the Peace Movement. As a counselor of the C. L. S. C. this contribution is a doubly appropriate message. A Permanent Tribunal for International Arbitration he prophetically set up as an ideal that could be achieved, and year after year he worked by voice and pen and a very wide personal influence in behalf of that ideal. His words regarding accomplishment up to this time (his 87th birthday was observed in April) conclude THE CHAUTAUQUAN series on "The Friendship of Nations."



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damental principle to assert the truth of this oracle and to illustrate it.

UNIVERSAL PEACE.

Of course from the very beginning I met the established heresies in the matter of universal peace. There are the Mrs. Grundy prejudices which say everybody says thus-and-thus, therefore thus-and-thus is true. There are the Aesop fable heresies. Because Aesop, an Asiatic slave, said he saw a hog rubbing his tusks against a tree and that the hog said to him, "In time of peace prepare for war," therefore, England shall build eight Dreadnoughts this year. There are what I call the Lobby Heresies. That is in every capital city, for causes easily defined, a very large number of persons connected with government have been trained in armies or in navies. They have studied war, perhaps they have seen war, they talk about war, and very naturally they inculcate war. In this country, at this moment, for this reason, we have a Secretary of War and not a Secretary of Peace. Or in technical words, war is organized and peace is not organized.

The new magazine was to expose such fallacies as these and it was to show what the real drift of civilization or the advance of the kingdom of God indicates. I had been much interested in Sully's Memoirs. I did not believe that many people knew that such people as Sully and Henry the Fourth and Queen Elizabeth's great ministers had a scheme for the confederation of Europe which should put an end to war. It was the fashion to talk about the friends of Peace as dreamers, as "mere idealists,"—as if God were not the great idealist of all. Now if we could make people understand that the Antonines and their successors kept the civilized world at peace for a couple of centuries,—if we could make the world understand that among the "mere idealists" were such people as Henry the Fourth and Queen Elizabeth and Hugo Grotius and William Penn, we should help along. As one department of the new magazine, therefore, I established the "record of progress" which was to give specific instances of the triumphs of the life of our

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time. Among other papers I published a careful account of the idealism of Sully and the English Cabinet of his day.

I have always remembered with pleasure the cordial sympathy with which Mrs. Julia Ward Howe thanked us for rescuing their message from the ashes, and to this day I never meet a member of the Jesuit order without reminding him that an emissary of theirs set back universal peace for three hundred years when he stabbed Henry the Fourth.

### THE CIVIL WAR.

"Time is with us." That is one of the fine epigrams of the last century due to Cavour, perhaps. And the Civil War in America was a great help forward. Our friends in the southern states know this very well now, and the veteran survivors of the Civil War know it. The United States of America had been for more than sixty years the greatest peace society of the world. It had kept thirteen independent states from fighting with each other. It had doubled their number. Eight or ten of these communities undertook to break off from the rest, and the majestic word Union met them. All the other states rose as one man to crush the doctrine of separatism. By a misfortune which everyone then regretted the particular causes of dissension had been excepted from the subjects which might come before the Supreme Court of America. Because they were excepted the states were at war with each other. The war was a war for union. Its end proved to the world that when a nation has been formed from separate states that union must continue. So it happens that there are no aphorisms to be used in the peace crusade today more potent than the words of men who served loyally through the four years of war.

### A WORLD UNITED.

Meanwhile, since Fulton sent the *Clermont* up the Hudson in 1807, the world had been growing smaller and smaller. The nations of the world were drawn closer. Poor Mackintosh, an exile in India, wrote in Calcutta in 1807, "An

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American named Fulton has driven his steamboat one hundred and fifty miles in thirty hours. This would bring London within one hundred days of Calcutta. Oh, that we had lived a century later!" You and I live a century later and Calcutta and London are within one-billionth part of a second. And that sort of change has been going on, literally in a thousand ways, as a thousand new inventions or discoveries have brought peoples closer and closer together. If I go into a Sunday School today and tell the children that God sees us all at one time, the children believe me because they know that one spark of lightning is felt at New York and at Calcutta. The grandfathers of those children had no such illustration of what they called omniscience. Watch such a change in any walk of life and you see that the world is one as no one saw it a hundred years ago.

Now, the merchants of America had found out in the little war of 1812, how war sets back not only commerce but every office of civilization. Such men as Dodge of New York City were side by side with such men as Worcester and Channing in uttering the peace doctrines of "mere idealists." Again as I say, the Civil War was not only an object lesson but it was a stimulus in such doctrines. And as years rolled on the fine practical question, What are you going to do about it? compelled answers from the idealists. You began to hear of international congresses, a congress of Americanistas, scientific congresses, geographical and postal congresses,—Judge Baldwin has made a list of more than a hundred of such congresses in thirty years. There had even been international Peace congresses,—an old joke told about the congress in Paris when Napoleon the Third welcomed the congress with great courtesy and gave directions that sentinels from the French army should pace up and down the sidewalks where it was in session. As Freeman Clarke remarked at the time such congresses always deceive the people engaged in them. Because all is sunshine with them, they think the world is in sunshine. But it was impossible that a United World should not insist on union in diplomacy in fact as well as in talk and in business. And

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just as in 1774 the interdependence of the Thirteen Colonies on each other compelled the existence of the Continental Congress, the same result followed in international politics. The world must have not simply occasional academic announcements of its love of peace. It must have

A PERMANENT TRIBUNAL.

From the time of the Treaty of Vienna in 1815, the diplomacy of the world had tested the possibility of special arbitration between nations. Here was a cumbrous sort of machinery which on the whole justified itself. More than one hundred such arbitrations had done their work between 1815 and 1899. Celebrated among them in the closing years of the century was the Geneva Arbitration which dispensed its favors right and left in such wise that both England and the United States agreed to its decisions.

As between nations the system of "arbitration" represents that fine old New England custom which is still called in the vernacular "leaving it out to men." John Jones and Sam Smith cannot agree whose ox gored whose cow, or whether the pine tree which marks the corner on a plan in the survey of their farm is a certain white pine or a certain scrub pine. They consent, therefore, to "leave out to men" the questions on which they do not agree. One names Asaph Brown for his man, the other names William White for his. Brown and White meet and agree to appoint George Gray as the third. Then the three meet and determine about the pine trees. There is something fine in the archaic simplicity of "leaving it out to men." But a practical world prefers to have a permanent court which shall determine all questions between individuals. And so the leaving it out to arbitration by special referees is gradually abandoned.

In the history which I am tracing a notable step forward was made by Mr. Blaine when he called the international congress at Washington of the American states. Henry Clay had proposed such a congress early as his time but nothing had come of it. But in Mr. Blaine's congress

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at Washington a very distinguished body of men from all the countries of North and South America met in November, 1889. Their session lasted till April, 1890. And some of their decisions went into the international law of America. Unfortunately, perhaps, they declined to hold their meetings in public; the press of the nation took offense at this and with few exceptions made it the business of editors to ridicule the congress and its results. All the same, however, it showed the possibility of such an assembly called by persons in authority and not by "mere idealists." Each successive session of this congress has improved the international law of the world.

Among other people who were learning their lesson the "mere idealist" caught on to the "machine." The somewhat dreary annual meetings of peace societies were enlivened by the discovery that it would be possible to have a code of international law. Up till this time, observe, international law existed only in specific treaties between separate nations, and in the academic discussions of such fathers as Grotius, Vattel, and our own Wheaton, with some decisions of Courts of Admiralties. If such a code was possible, there must be a court which should decide questions which arose under it. No such court existed. Arbitration, so-called, furnished only temporary decisions for temporary issues. And precisely as the Thirteen American Republics had created a Supreme Court when they founded their nation, so the world of civilized nations must form

### A PERMANENT TRIBUNAL.

For myself, since you ask me about myself, I remember that on the third of March, 1893, in preaching a sermon in the City of Washington, I named a Permanent Tribunal as among the achievements which the nineteenth century expected of the twentieth century.

### THE MOHONK CONFERENCES.

Meanwhile a single man, I need hardly say of the communion of the Friends, had set on foot a piece of machinery

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in this matter which has attained historical importance. This word arbitration had won favor in the ear of the public. Mr. Albert Smiley in 1894 invited a large body of men on whose good sense and power of forelook he relied to meet at Lake Mohonk in a convention of the friends of Arbitration. This convention has been an annual institution from that day to this. And it has existed, not merely for what the diplomatists call *pour parlers,* but for work. Of course it soon slipped off from the archaic system in which Brown and White choose men for their temporary questions. Of course from the first the Lake Mohonk Conference has urged upon the world the necessity of a Supreme Court of Nations.

Of a sudden a sort of lightning flash when the afternoon has been very dark, the "mere idealists" were reinforced where they least expected reinforcement. Of all people in the world the Czar of Russia best represented those sovereigns who as the old joke says sit upon the points of bayonets. But as if for the convenience of the school boys of the future the Czar of Russia chose his time, and sent out his circular to all the nations with which he corresponded proposing a Congress of Peace. The proposal astonished the world. He said himself that it was a fit time. He said this because with the end of our Spanish War of one hundred days what called itself the civilized world was at peace. The first Congress met at the Hague May 18, 1899. It adjourned after a session of two months and twelve days. And it had established

A PERMANENT TRIBUNAL.

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# Part IX. The Hague, the Court, the Huis ten Bosch, the Queen and Consort, the People's Love for the Queen, Their Attitude Toward the Consort, Characteristics of the Upper Class*

By George Wharton Edwards

THE Hague—Dutch "'s Graven Hage, or den Haag"—*i. e.*, the "Counts enclosure or hedge," has been for centuries the favorite residence of the Dutch royal family. Formerly the political capitol of the States General, it has been styled the largest village in Europe, and it was Louis Bonaparte who conferred upon it the privileges of a town. The Mauritshuis, the celebrated picture gallery, the Huis ten Bosch, or palace in the wood, one of the most beautifully furnished chateaus in the world, an authority claims; the "Vijver," or lake, around which are clustered the various palaces; the "Gevangenpoort," an ancient tower and historic prison; the municipal museum, and next to the "Rijks," the finest in Holland; the "Mesdag" museum, and Baron Steen Gracht's picture gallery, are the principal objects of interest. The Hague is the favorite residence of the beloved Queen of Holland and the court. It seems immaculately clean, is dignified by various palatial residences, and stately

*Copyright 1908, by George Wharton Edwards. The "Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land," of which this is the last installment, began in the September CHAUTAUQUAN.



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avenues of trees, and it is all very charming for a few days, but after one has seen the pictures, one would better pass on quickly, for here the guilders have wings!

The Queen gave her consent to the representatives of the Powers interested in the First International Peace Conference to hold their deliberations in the Orange Room of the "House in the Wood." It was here that Motley wrote much of the "Rise and Fall of the Dutch Republic." Most people must have read that delightful Roundabout Paper of Thackeray's entitled "Notes of a Week's Holiday." Holland seems to have delighted the great novelist for he alludes to "the vast green flats, speckled by spotted cows, and bounded by a gay frontier of windmills," and where the only bitterness in his cup was the "florin" which was charged at his hotel for a bottle of pale ale! He calls the Hague "the prettiest little brick city, with the pleasantest park to ride in, the neatest comfortable people walking about, the canals not unsweet, and busy and picturesque with old world life." Wherever he went he was bubbling over with enjoyment. There certainly seems to be more gaiety and life here than in any other town in the Netherlands. One misses the business activity of Amsterdam, but there is certainly none of the sleepiness of the other towns. One sees in the streets well-equipped carriages, magnificent automobiles, nearly as large as Pullman coaches, bearing conspicuous coats of arms, and seemingly having space in the limousine for eight or ten people. These machines are most luxuriously upholstered, as one may imagine, and carry two and three men servants, including the chauffeur. There are crowds of well-dressed people strolling about and the shops vie with those of Paris.

The Hague is the most cosmopolitan of all the Dutch cities and many most distinguished people have lived here. It has been the political capital of Holland since the sixteenth century. The great interest of course centers in the "Palace in the Wood" which, though small, is most picturesque. It was erected in 1645 for Princess Amalia of Solms, consort of Prince Frederick Henry, son of Henry

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the Silent. After his death, the Princess prepared the Orange Room as a memorial to him, and the walls are covered with paintings in his honor and recording his victories on the battle-field. Nine of the most eminent painters of the day labored here for four years upon these paintings. The Queen's dining-room has a beautiful ceiling in relief, and there are four remarkable Grisaille paintings by De Witt. The Chinese Room contains eighteenth century wall decorations upon rice paper, and the furniture is the gift from the Chinese Emperor. There is also a Japanese Room, presented to the Nation by the Emperor of Japan in 1795. The curious chandelier hanging from the ceiling is entirely made up of cups and saucers! I did not see the boudoir, which, to my great regret, was closed. The private sitting-room seems a little too crowded for comfort, it being literally filled with treasures.

The temptation in writing of a strange country seen superficially only, as a foreign country must necessarily be seen, is to generalize and to strain facts to suit the writer's classifications; and it will be admitted, I think, that Holland has suffered more than perhaps any other country from exaggeration. So many absurd things have been written and printed about the Queen and the Court that I should like, were space accorded me, to correct such absurdities. As a rule, when reading accounts concerning the Queen in the newspapers, one may take the statements with a grain of salt. In truth, the Queen is a woman of great strength of character and purpose and her shrewdness in dealing with affairs of great moment concerning the welfare of the Netherlands is well-known to her ministers. She has great personal charm of manners, is of the kindliest possible disposition, and her charities are boundless. Of course her privy purse is very large, but her private charities, likewise, it is said, are enormous. There were great misgivings upon the announcement of her betrothal to Prince Henry, for it must be recorded that the Hollander does not like the German for obvious reasons, and the German in turn affects to have merely a tolerant feeling for

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him. The Hollander somehow feels that in this alliance by marriage with Germany lurks certain mysterious dangers, so he regards the Consort with a sidelong glance, although outwardly he is most respectful in his attitude toward him. The Queen is regarded as the embodiment of the House of Orange and this feeling is quite apart from their affection for her and their delight in her youth and beauty. They claim that Holland is not now and never will be, less of a Republic than she ever was, but they see in the distance the shadow of coming events which point perhaps to their annihilation as a kingdom. But we need not dwell upon this fact, for as we see Holland now she is basking in the bright sun of prosperity, and her throne is occupied by an altogether satisfactory ruler who is held in affectionate esteem, and whose heart is their heart, the Queen of the House of Orange. The loyalty and devotion of the Dutch people to their Queen is proverbial, and it is a charming sight to see the stolid faces light up as the Queen drives by in her victoria.

Holland is certainly a country of highly educated people, as a system of sound and liberal education has been brought within the reach of all and generally accepted by the masses. Of course the Boer or peasant is and always will be a peasant, he is content with the fact. I recall one with whom I spent a delightful and most profitable morning on his farm. He wore the costume of his province proudly, and his shoes were wooden which he left outside the door as we entered his dwelling. He spoke English fairly well, too, and German quite pleasantly. The Hollander, as has been observed elsewhere in this book, shows great cleverness in learning foreign tongues. This is his gift from the gods, so to say, but sadly enough in manners he is lamentably lacking. He is not as he would say "Beschaafd" or "smoothed out"—he is wanting in *savoir faire*.

Traveling third-class one must admit the manners of the lower order leave much to be desired. The conversation is of a sort generally best left to the imagination, for the boer is a wonderfully frank individual. There is a high

level of education among Dutch women who pursue their studies in the high-burger schools and they are perhaps the equals of women of any other nation. Even among women who have no special claim to learning it will surprise the traveler to find how well English and French literature is known. There is no cheap culture, nor a cheap religion, so-called, nor even a sensational appeal to the emotions in their churches. They reject all such indignantly even though they have so many religious sects. Of course Protestantism holds the field, for it outnumbers Catholicism two to one, but the fight is still waged between them with great bitterness.

The visitor to the Netherlands must not be misled as to the character of the upper classes or judge them in any way by those whom he meets in the hotels or conveyances. The Dutch gentleman and lady are far removed from these. Do not believe either that they find their pleasures in the grosser comforts, for they are highly educated and their manners are those of the upper classes of the English. The young men are always sent to the university where their education is carefully looked after, and the young girls are most highly accomplished, with a knowledge of art, and music, and generally speaking French, Italian, and English. There is much driving and afternoon calls are general. In the evening at the club, the gentlemen congregate for an hour or so before dinner at which the "Borreltje" or gin and bitters is in evidence. As a rule dinner is served any time between six and half past seven and this is a very formal occasion, although the menu is simple. The people are well-dressed, generally after the English fashion. In manner they are most kindly and they delight in pretty speeches. Breakfast, as a rule, at this house which I have in mind, and which will answer as a specimen, is generally ready at eight o'clock but oftentimes the table is kept in order and ready until ten for the young men who may have been out for an early morning ride on the dunes. This is an easy matter for a mahogany bucket lined with metal and containing peat embers in which a brass kettle is kept singing, is always placed beside every Dutch breakfast table; it ap-

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Queen Wilhelmina in full Regalia.

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Palace of the Queen, The Hague.

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pears, too, at five o'clock teas, as well as after dinner in the drawing-room. This kettle-bucket in Holland is very characteristic. At breakfast one eats lightly, as a rule, bread and butter with a thin slice of gingerbread, making a sandwich. There is tea and coffee, and eggs are boiled, generally in an old-fashioned net on a ring which is dipped into the kettle. Everybody is welcomed with *bon jour* and people take their seats without further ceremony. The mail is brought to the table and distributed, and there will be English papers of the sporting order at hand. After breakfast the women gather in the garden to cull the roses, or do fancy-work in the arbors, embosomed in the trees. The garden is a pretty place with rustic bridge over a water trench, green with duck weed and shaded by willows, and down in the hollow lies a pond full of water lilies where perhaps a swan or two will be swimming. After luncheon there will be driving along the brick-paved road shaded by trees, past smiling cottages and country-seats, while the bright little villas, seldom far apart, are seen along the road behind beautiful green lawns. After the heat of the afternoon five o'clock tea is fashionable and the young men drive off in a fly to the club for an hour before dinner.

People generally ask what sort of food is served at dinner. Well, we will have as genuine Dutch dishes, potato puree or bouillon flavored with chervil, and containing balls of veal force meat, and there will be water bass from the canal which are about the size of our trout, and are served up in a deep dish in the water in which they are boiled, and parsley flavored. This is served with thin sandwiches of rye bread. Next comes, generally, roast or stewed veal, mutton being so poor that it is rarely eaten. The vegetables are potatoes with butter, boiled endives, and bread-crumbed cabbage. Then there will be partridge, or some other game, wild duck being plentiful in season, sometimes the young men coming in after dawn with a fine bag. The dessert is mostly French bon-bons or tarts, but sometimes English jam is served. Dessert over, both ladies and gentlemen return together to the drawing-room for coffee, which is

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served in the smallest and most precious of blue china which is generally kept behind cabinet doors. Then come liquors, cognac, and aniseed, this latter being the favorite. During the evening callers are entertained after which tea is served, the mahognay peat bucket and its kettle having been placed by the footman as usual beside the table.

I may mention that there are but three classes of nobility in Holland, the "Jonkheer," then "Baron," and the highest, "Count." The Dutch are very simple as to their titles, which are never used in good society, as everyone knows they are Barons or Counts, so it would be thought snobbish or bad form to so address them. Servants may sometimes use the title but more often they will only say, "Mynheer." Of course the peasantry use the titles in speaking among themselves but only to this extent.

After tea, the lady of the house always washes her own tea cups, never trusting them to the servants. This washing of the cups is one of the good old customs and as these cups are worth from five to fifteen dollars apiece, there is a reason for it. Another strange custom is the visit of the "Aanspreker." I saw a curious figure passing swiftly along the path, dressed in funereal black, wearing a three-cornered hat with a long streamer floating over his coat which was flapping in the wind. On his feet were silver-buckled shoes, and it was explained to me that it is his duty to make the rounds of the neighborhood, announcing deaths. Another strange old custom is that wherever lies mother and a newborn babe, there shall be fastened to the door a huge ornament called "a Klopper." My Dutch friend brought forth one which had been used in the family. It was a large square of lace bearing in the center a finely embroidered coat of arms, and he told me that the lace was the finest old "mechlin." It was lined with white, for it announced the birth of a girl. That for a boy being one-half pink. These "Kloppers" are eagerly sought for as souvenirs, so I am told.

While the Dutch use their own language almost invariably, they will often speak in French. All social invitations are written in the latter tongue and sometimes the most

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**Queen** Wilhelmina in Friesland Costume (One of Her Older Portraits).

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The Bosch—The Hague.

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The Queen Mother.

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The Stadhouders-Gate at The Hague.

Inside the Gate at The Hague. (The Gevangenpoort.)

familiar correspondence. As to English, it is quite generally used, and I remember few Hollanders who did not have at least a slight speaking acquaintance with it.

On Sunday morning it is customary to attend church. This one is small, whitewashed, and sadly bare. The ladies sit on chairs in the middle of the house, the men occupying places by themselves at one side. There is a hymn or two with some good music on the organ, a very long prayer by the minister who is gowned in black, and then a still longer sermon, followed by a collection in which two black bags with tassels attached to the ends of long poles are passed around by the "beadles." On one of the bags is written "Eglise," that is for the church; the other is for the poor. The service is melancholy and depressing to a foreigner, but the people are sincere and very devout.

After luncheon and the siesta, the carriage is ordered for the afternoon drive over the beautiful, level roads and through the rich, wooded spaces of the outskirts, passing

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The Vyver—The Hague.

the lovely villas and crowds of peasantry quietly walking by the roadside. There is much driving and many beautiful equipages. The peasantry are out in their gala costume, for this is their great day, and strange dogcarts drawn by huge ill-looking animals are quite filled with stout peasants, who seem to be a tremendous load for the unfortunate animals. Then we pass a regiment of soldiers in infantry uniform, blue, with yellow worsted facings and tassels, carrying strange-looking knapsacks and wearing singular pointed caps. They are not well set up, and seem to be small of stature and their uniform certainly is not becoming.

Being a stranger in quest of information, I am to visit a farm-house, and we soon stop before a prosperous-looking house at the end of a brick-paved walk. There are many cooing pigeons flying about and I soon discover that all the buildings of this farm are practically under one roof, comprising the dwelling-house, the dairy, the cow-house, and various other departments. A

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The Maurice House, The Hague.

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The National Monument, at The Hague.

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Queen Wilhelmina of Holland and the Prince Consort.

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clean, orderly row of wooden shoes stand outside the door, which opens on a clean, freshly-painted passageway paved with red brick where we are welcomed by the wife of the farmer and ushered into the sitting room. She is in her stocking feet. The parlor is gay with strips of bright carpet and there is a shining mahogany table in the center. We are served by a plump maid with home-made pear wine which politeness forces us to drink, and the household treasures are brought forth from a huge, carved "armoire." The family Bible with its silver clasps, grandmother's holiday gowns, some antique head-dresses and a fine collection of beautiful, old, carved and beaten silver spoons which are greatly admired. We are then taken to the dairy with its long tables filled with green and orange stone crocks of milk, prints of butter in wooden bowls, and several loaves of large, fresh cheeses, made by the farmer's wife and daughters. Opening a door we are ushered into the cow-house which is four steps below the level of the kitchen. This is an immense room with the roof far above our heads, and a footway of red tiles down the middle. On one hand are piled large clean cheese presses above which are hanging long lines of copper pans, brightly scoured brass cheese scoops, candlesticks, and the various wooden implements used in preparing cheese and butter. Down another passageway leading off, we see the cow-stalls and all is as clean as the parlor itself. Here in winter some sixty cows are under cover, and each cow-stall is carefully laid with sand which is marked out in ornamental patterns. There is a small stream of water running through the center of this passageway to carry away the offal. The cheese is made on a raised platform at the side of this cow shed, and the farmer describes the operation which is too intricate for me to understand or to set down here. I may say that there is not a particle of odor in this building, everything being of immaculate cleanliness.

As we drove home, the band was playing in the open space and the peasants were enjoying themselves hugely at various small tables drinking a queer black liquid which it

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was explained to me is made of gin and black currants. On the the way home we drew to one side to let a wedding party pass. There were several kinds of carriages, one in particular being called a "Janplaisir," and big enough to hold an army almost, with open sides and blinds which roll up and down and drawn by six horses. There was much shouting and cheering as the gay procession passed by, the one at the head being the old-fashioned kind, set high in the air on its large wheels, the body carved and gilded and painted with pictures in bright colors. Then we stop at a drawbridge which is pulled up to allow some river craft to pass, and finally we are at our journey's end.

On the whole, then, life in the Netherlands is most comfortable and there is much good cheer, and it would seem true as the Dutch affirm, that social life in the Netherlands is purer and happier than that of any other people. This may be a sweeping assertion on their part, but they certainly do seem happy and contented!

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Thackeray has most charmingly recorded his experiences and adventures in the Netherlands in the "Roundabout Papers." The sketch is entitled "Notes of a Week's Holiday." He found the Dutchman "A man and a brother." One would do well to read these charming papers. In an interesting book entitled "Through Holland," Mr. Charles Wood has recorded his experiences, and in W. H. Beatty-Kingston's "A Wanderer's Notes" some very well observed chapters are given up to a description of Holland. Other books are recommended as follows: "A Famous Vacation," George E. Waring; F. S. Bird's "Land of Dykes and Windmills;" Hough's "Dutch Life in Town and Country;" Hare's "Sketches in Holland and Scandinavia," a book of yachting experiences; "Friesland Meres," by H. M. Doughty; Brougham's "Cruise on Friesland Broads;" G. H. Boughton's book, "Sketching Rambles in Holland;" and Motley's great work, "A History of the United Netherlands," and of course his "Rise of the Dutch Republic;" and last Douglas Campbell's "The Puritan in Holland, England, and America." The numerous guide books will give one practical information of the required sort.

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# IX. The Nineteenth Century Painters of Landscapes and Marines*

By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor of the History of Art, University of Chicago.

IN this revival of Dutch painting which is our present theme there were four pioneers of supreme importance: Bosboom with his homely churches flooded with sunlight or dark with shadow; Israels with his cottage interiors, his sturdy sailors, and his little children, giving the sentiment and the pathos of humble life; James Maris, the poet of the towns, the seas, and the skies; and Anton Mauve, the interpreter of animals. It will be noted that little account is here taken of portrait painting, and for a very good reason. In view of the supremacy of the portrait in Dutch art of the seventeenth century, it is indeed surprising that in this modern revival portrait painting has been the least conspicuous form of artistic expression. It is true that Israels executed a few portraits that in their subjective character are almost as truly an expression of the artist, rather than of his sitters, as are his pictures of peasants. It is also true that the most distinguished woman painter of the group, Miss Thérèse Schwartze, is best known as a portrait painter. But her work, although it has been of a high order, has not been of such importance as to place her in the same rank

*Previous Articles of this series were "Frans Hals and the Portrait" (September); "Rembrandt" (October); "Rembrandt and His Pupils" (November); "Painters of Domestic Scenes" December); "Painters of the Peasantry" (January); "Landscape and Marine Painters" (February); "Animal Painters, Painters of Architecture and Still Life" (March); "Modern Painters: Israels and Mesdag" (April).

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with Israels as a figure painter, or with Mauve and the brothers Maris as painters of landscapes and of animals. As the subject of last month's article was recent figure painting in Holland as represented by its greatest master Israels and his followers, so the theme of the present paper is the landscape painting of this modern school as represented by James Maris and Anton Mauve. Although Maris is the greatest man of the group it is necessary to take up some of his contemporaries who have done important work, following as far as convenient the chronological order.

The first Dutch painter to be distinctly modern in treatment of light and atmosphere was J. B. Jongkind. Born in 1819 in the village of Latrop, near Rotterdam, Jongkind went early to Paris where he studied in 1849 under the distinguished painter of romantic landscapes, Eugène Isabey, whose feeling for and appreciation of color no doubt influenced the young Dutchman. Jongkind exhibited in many salons between 1848 and 1872. Although he was continually executing masterly interpretations of landscape in France and in Holland, where he visited frequently, and was held in high respect by the French painters, influencing, so it is said, Monet in his treatment of light and atmosphere, and although his art received high praise from such discerning critics as Zola and Gautier, he was, nevertheless, able to sell his pictures only with difficulty and then for but a few francs. It was only after his death in 1891 that, by means of several public sales of his paintings and etchings, he attained international fame and his works sold for more than a thousand times what he had received for them. He is, in his treatment of luminous atmosphere, as it were, a connecting link between the French landscape painters of 1830, the so-called Barbizon group, and the painters of light, with Claude Monet at their head, the so-called Impressionists. Jongkind's art was unusual, not only because of his appreciation and rendering of the luminosity of nature, but also because he was that rare creature, a colorist who was also a master draughts-

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man, for most men who, like Monet, are successful in rendering the brightness of daylight, are not any too accurate as draughtsmen. Jongkind's pictures just because of their color and their brilliancy do not lend themselves well to reproduction in black and white. It must be said that although he frequently visited his native land he stands apart from the Dutch group and belongs more to the French school. He seems in truth to have had little, if any, direct influence in this revival of painting in his native land.

The same cannot be said of William Roelofs, who was born in Amsterdam in 1822. Of him Mr. Frank Rutter has written that he "may be justly regarded as the Father of the Modern Dutch school of emotional landscape."* Also in the Catalogue of the Willem Roelofs Memorial Exhibition held two years ago at The Hague, a critic made the statement, "Roelofs was in our country the first to open the way." What he did to open the way for a revival of native art was that which has led to nearly every great artistic awakening,—it was to return to nature. Nature is so infinitely varied, her moods and her appearances are so inexhaustible that after centuries of painting she still reveals some new secret to the artist who is able to observe her with his own eyes. Immediately he is able to discover something that was until then unobserved, and he is then declared a genius. Roelofs' distinction was, then, that of being one of the first of the Dutchmen to paint the landscapes about him. To apply to him a word that is often misinterpreted, he was a realist. Misinterpreted, because it cannot be too often repeated that not even the most pronounced realist merely copies nature; if he is to be a great artist he must interpret her. This was a favorite idea of Roelofs', one which he constantly enforced by precept and practice. In a letter dated in 1886 he emphasizes the distinction between an artist's sketches from nature and the finished picture developed from those sketches. "The study," he writes, "the fragment has to be re-created into a picture. Do not forget that these are two different things. Nature is the *material*

**The International Studio,* May, 1908.

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from which we have to draw; but do not suffer yourself to be imposed upon by the modern theories, which say that copying nature is all. The object, the aim of art is like that of music, to move the soul, to excite in our minds emotions which, though they cannot be expressed in words, are felt none the less by those who have the real sense for art. Why do you justly admire the Ruysdael with its mill at the Amsterdam Museum? There is in that painting not one hue which is as bright, fresh or vivid as nature. But it is harmonious, grand, emotional, as nature is; it affects us like nature by that melancholy poetry that is in it; it is like music that would make us dream of those big clouds, of that murmuring water, of the quiet road along the dyke. It is not enough to take brown, grey or black pigment to attain this; but along with your most correct studies from nature you ought to put something of your own feelings in to make a picture. All knowledge is vain when emotion is absent." This quotation indicates at once what is meant by the statement that Roelofs was the father of the modern Dutch school of emotional landscape, and the important fact as well that even this most realistic painter of his group so chooses his colors, so manages his lights and shadows that his pictures may not only interpret the moods of nature, but also the moods of man. And this last is part of the modern note in Dutch painting, this subjective element that reflects the feelings of the artist as much as the appearance of nature.

For many years Roelofs had a studio in Brussels, where as a young man he had studied and had fired the ambition of H. W. Mesdag to become a painter. However, notwithstanding his long sojourn in Belgium, Roelofs was a Dutchman by temperament as well as by birth, and not only painted his native land, but also painted it in the Dutch manner. He loved the watery meadows with their lush grasses and their bright flowers, in the rendering of which he displayed his instinctive feeling for brilliant colors, which had been cultivated by his long residence in Belgium, and by the influence of the Flemish painters, who had for centuries been gayer as colorists than the artists north of the Scheldt.

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For many years Roelofs painted only landscapes; it was, indeed, after he was a finished artist that his great admiration for the French painter, Troyon, led him to introduce cattle into his broad meadows. It is in fact impossible properly to write of Roelofs and not mention the debt he as well as others of the modern Dutchmen owed to their contemporaries in France. When quite a young man Roelofs went repeatedly to the village of Barbizon on the border of the forest of Fontainebleau, and it was there that he found inspiration and incentive in the works of the French painters of landscape and of animals. In view of the fact that he was to become a champion of realism in landscape painting it is interesting to note that he was most attracted by Rousseau, who was the realist of the Barbizon group, and by Troyon, that magnificent interpreter of animal life. Not only Roelofs, but Weissenbruch and other Dutchmen gratefully acknowledged their debt to the Barbizon men, who by their intimate interpretations of the forests, rivers and fields of France accomplished for painting what Wordsworth, Shelley, and Coleridge had done for nature poetry in giving to it new reality and new beauty.

Thus it is easy to trace the artistic antecedents of the modern Dutch painters, first to the Barbizon painters; then to the Englishman Constable, who had greatly influenced the latter by his "domesticating landscape," and through him back to the Dutchmen Ruysdael and Hobbema, and the Frenchman Claude Lorraine (1610-1682), all of whom had been guides and inspirers of the great Englishman. It may seem strange that these Dutchmen of the nineteenth century did not learn directly from their countrymen of three centuries earlier, and that they did not is an indication of the supremacy of the ideas of French Classicism in Holland in the early nineteenth century. Moreover the Barbizon painters had so far progressed beyond the work of the seventeenth century art of Holland that they had shown how the painting of nature could be even more concrete and intimate, and yet more real and brilliant in color than it had ever been at the hands of the early Dutchmen. Israels may not have been directly

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influenced by Millet, but his pictures show the same modern sentiment for and sympathy with labor, which we observe in life, and which was first typically expressed by Millet. In the same way, however little or much, Roelofs, Weissenbruch and the brothers Maris were influenced by Daubigny, Rousseau, and Diaz (the present writer feels sure that the influence was profound), the Dutchmen have only shown that modern love for nature which in poetry began, as was said, with Wordsworth and his group, and in painting first found perfect expression in Corot, Rousseau, and their associates.

Whereas Jongkind and Roelofs learned much from the artists of France and Belgium, and Roelofs, likewise, introduced foreign influences into Dutch painting, J. H. Weissenbruch (1824-1903) was more distinctly native in his art. He was a pupil of an unimportant Dutch painter, Shelfhout, but soon, at the advice of Bosboom, became an independent painter and went to nature for inspiration. His first work showed the painstaking care of his master in the rendering of details, but it changed as he grew in sympathy with the modern movement, so that he has become one of the broadest and most synthetic painters of the school. Very simple are the elements of his art as seen in his "Coast Scene." A long stretch of beach, two or three brown sails against the grey sky, and a few human figures on the sand suffice to compose a tonal poem eloquent of the sea-faring life of his people. Weissenbruch often paints the ever-present wind-mill, or a canal with a cottage on its bank. He is, perhaps, above all a painter of the sea and the sky; not the mighty deep of Mesdag with the waves and the solitude of mid-ocean, but the hospitable shores of Holland with the added interest of the human element. What most appealed to Weissenbruch may be told in his own words; he is reported to have said, "Only let me get the sky and the clouds right in my pictures, and the rest is easy. Atmosphere and light are the great sorcerers. We cannot work too hard to get the atmosphere. This is the secret of a good picture." It may be added that he often attained the object of his

striving, since few artists have succeeded so well in suggesting light, atmosphere and space.

The next artist to be mentioned, Anton Mauve (1838-1888), was one of the most original and most sympathetic of the group. As a boy he showed talent for drawing and was sent by his father to Amsterdam to study under P. F. van Os. From this mediocre painter Mauve learned only the rudiments of his art. At first his drawing was precise and his color bright, and it was only about 1865 when he stood on terms of intimate friendship with Israels that his powers began to develop. About this time he was also influenced by his friend William Maris as well as by the work of Millet, for whom he had unbounded admiration. But the influence of these three men on the work of Mauve is not apparent to the observer; quietly he learned the spiritual lesson of each master and under their guidance he observed nature for himself and expressed her various moods with rare poetic insight and sincerity of feeling. Mauve painted not only on the sea coast, but wandered far inland to the Inner Downs, where, removed from the sea the greens of the verdure are softer and the air more balmy. Studying the shepherds with their flocks, and the peasants at their toil, Mauve became the pastoral poet of the school, a poet whose melodies were those of tone and color. Not only was he a landscapist, but also one of the greatest of animal painters whose only rival within the group was William Maris. No less a critic than W. E. Henley has said of Mauve: "His treatment of animals is at once judicious and affectionate. He is careful to render them in relation to their aërial surroundings; but he has recognized that they too are creatures of character and sentiment, and he loves to paint them in their relation to each other and to man." To Troyon animals were objects in a landscape; to Mauve they are that and something more. His old horses are their masters' friends; his cows are used to the girls who tend them; his sheep feed as if they knew each other, and liked it." Not only did he paint sheep and cattle, he excelled also in interpreting the horse, not the race or the

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Turning the Furrow. By Anton Mauve. In a private collection.

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View of Amsterdam. By James Maris. Shown at the St. Louis Exposition.

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The Ferry Boat. By James Maris. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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View in a Town. By Matthew Maris. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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Coast Scene. By J. H. Weissenbruch. In the Municipal Museum, The Hague.

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Children on the Beach. By B. J. Blommers.

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Cattle in Pasture. By William Maris. In the Municipal Museum, The Hague.

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The Windmill. By William Roelofs. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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Sheep Among the Dunes. By Anton Mauve.

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The Two Mills. By James Maris. In the Municipal Museum, A msterdam.

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The Sheepfold. By Anton Mauve. In the Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

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battle horse, but the plodding beast at the plow, the cart, and the canal boat. These animals he knew how to represent in their proper environment and to make picturesque in their surroundings. He must have believed with Rembrandt that there is nothing too homely to be made beautiful by light and color and tone. Take for instance, "Turning the Furrow." Unprepossessing as is the subject, the painting shows a master in the rendering of values. How delicately must the relative amount of light reflected by the objects be suggested; and how difficult successfully to place the grey horse against the dull grey sky. The original shows Mauve at his best as a tonalist, as does also his "Sheep Among the Dunes," one of his greatest masterpieces. An artist's aim is not only to reproduce a certain aspect of nature, but it is, in addition to this, so to lay on his paint as to produce a surface beautiful in itself and capable of exciting aesthetic pleasure. This surface quality is one of the higher artistic qualities of the masters of this school, especially of Israels, Weissenbruch, Mauve, and the brothers Maris. Yet Mauve with all his surface quality, color and tonal quality was one of the most uneven painters; he could at times be loose and fumbling in execution, and sink far below the level of his highest accomplishment, as indeed could Israels. So, without claiming that Mauve was absolutely the greatest interpreter of animals, for have not the Frenchman Troyon and the German Zügel also painted these subjects?—it may truthfully be said that Mauve is one of the most delightful painters of landscapes with animals of any school or period, and, at his best, is unexcelled for tender charm and pastoral feeling.

Before taking up the greatest masters of the group it is necessary to mention at least a few of the host of important men who have been or still are at work. Among these excellent painters are P. J. G. Gabriel, the painter of the polders, Pieter ter Meulen, a painter of sheep, Theophile de Bock, a distinguished landscapist, Evert Pieters, G. H. Breitner, Isaac Israels, son of Joseph Israels, A. M. Gorter, and Louis W. van Soest, a masterly painter of snow scenes,

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some of whose beautiful creations were seen at the St. Louis Exposition. It is to be regretted that we cannot linger over the work of these and other painters who have helped to create the greatness of this modern school, but they must give place to the supreme artists of this landscape group, the brothers Maris.

James Maris was born in 1837 and died in 1899; Matthew, born in 1839, and William, born in 1844, are still at work, one in London, the other in Holland. In their youth they worked to some extent together, for a while in Antwerp, afterwards in Paris where they lived until after the Franco-Prussian war. During the siege of Paris pictures were unsalable and Matthew joined the National Guard at the magnificent pay of a franc and a half a day, and it is said that he was the most unsoldierly of soldiers. In the years immediately following this, Matthew produced remarkably poetic landscapes that are to-day for the most part hidden away in private collections. In 1877 the brothers parted, Matthew going to London where he has lived the life of a recluse and a dreamer, and has been seldom seen save by his intimate friends. He has moreover, become such a keen self-critic that he has produced very little, and those who know his paintings, chiefly figure paintings of a highly mystical conception, declare them to be on the border line between the seen and the unseen, while being masterpieces of tone and color and suggestiveness. His works, unlike those of his brothers, are seldom seen in the United States. William Maris did not have such thorough academic training as his brothers, who gave him his earliest lessons, nor is their influence to be traced in his works. His summers he spent working in the fields, his winters in the stables and sheds studying the cattle. Wholly individual in his art, he developed a style peculiarly his own, for, although Dutch artists had for centuries been painting cattle in the meadows and fields of their native country, William Maris succeeded in treating them in a manner entirely unique. He loves especially the freshness of the verdure just after a storm has passed and the sky has

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become a clear bright blue shedding a brilliant light on the glistening meadows. In such luminous settings he has placed his animals, often close to the shallow waters that reflect the clearing skies.

Of this remarkable trio it is James Maris who is best known to the world, and deservedly so, for he is the most many sided of all these men, even including Israels. But though his brush has dealt with nearly every theme known to art, he is probably best known by his pictures of cities, canals, and wind mills over which he spread skies such as only James Maris could paint. More than one critic has declared that there never has been such a painter of the arching heavens since Constable. His clouds voyage majestically across the sky, now fraught with thunder, dark with rain, or bright with sunshine; clouds that pile themselves up like castles in the air, or hover like gossamer about to vanish. No doubt nature taught him many lessons, and made it unnecessary for the critic to try to discover the provenance of his style, yet one might venture to say that he seems to have been most affected by Daubigny's tender feeling and poetic character. During the last forty years painters have been especially interested in rendering the effect of the luminous atmosphere, and of the play of light on surfaces; to attain this end many men have asserted that landscapes should be painted out of doors. In view of the fact that James Maris' pictures are beautiful examples of this *plein air* painting, this rendering of the effect of open air illumination, as opposed to the studio shadows of the old masters, it is interesting to note that all of Maris' pictures were painted indoors. It is said that when a landscape impressed him he would stand for some time, until it was, as it were, photographed on his brain, then he would go home and do all the work of painting in his studio. Nevertheless, no one has obtained more truthful *plein air* effects. In his art Maris does not display the qualities of sympathy as Mauve, of sentiment or of extreme simplification as Israels, he has, rather, qualities of his own which

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are unsurpassed, and which rank him as one of the greatest masters of color and tone in the Dutch school.

Owing to the exploitation of these painters by the American picture dealers many of their works have found places in our public and private collections, yet, however familiar one has become with their works here, one gains a new and a higher impression of their merit by visiting the galleries of Holland, and one realizes anew, that whatever their subject their true theme has been atmosphere and light. Now it is a soft and tender light, as with Israels, or silvery as with James Maris, or diffused and all-pervading as it floods the canals and villages of Weissenbruch, or trembling and shimmering in the moisture-laden atmosphere of William Maris, or it is the brilliant light after the rain shining across the sparkling meadows of the same master. In fact the real subject of William Maris is not merely light in general, but sunlight in particular. In other articles of this series it was noticed that Pieter de Hooch, Potter, Cuyp and other men of the seventeenth century liked to paint sunlight. But while these painters spread smoothly on their canvas the yellow paint of a certain tone; Maris and other moderns put on their canvas the primary colors. This use of "broken color," that is the placing of colors in their purity side by side, results in a more vivid impression of the brightness of daylight, and the luminosity of the sky. Of this method of painting William Maris is preëminently the master in Holland. James Maris, Mauve and the others differ from the old masters rather in the delicacy of their gradations of light and shade, and their treatment of vague outlines so as to suggest atmosphere. This is the technical secret of their effects of atmosphere,—gradation of tone and *blended* outline. To gain atmospheric effects they drag the color of the sky into the foliage of the trees, and the color of the trees into the sky. In all of this they are distinctly modern in method. Their pictures never could have been painted earlier than the latter part of the nineteenth century. Moreover, they are modern not only in matters of technic, but in their largeness of vision, in their love for

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pure nature and in their kindly human sympathy. With all their modernity they are very Dutch in their clear and honest vision, their conscientious craftsmanship, their healthy good sense, and in the adaptation of their art to the needs and ideals of their contemporaries, so that for half a century they have been one of the strongest and most individual schools of modern painting, and the worthy inheritors of the artistic traditions of Hobbema and Ruisdael, of Pieter de Hooch and Vermeer of Delft, of Hals and Rembrandt.

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For Search and Review Questions on Required Readings See the Round Table Section of this Magazine.

(*End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading, pages* 333-399.)

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# Modern French Sculpture

By Edwina Spencer

AMONG the peoples of the past, plastic art rose to supreme heights only twice—in Greece and in Renaissance Italy; and after barren centuries those two wonderful epochs have been followed by a resurrection of sculptural activity which is affecting the whole art-producing world. Though it now appears that this revival may be destined to find its fullest and highest expression in America, yet it owes its nativity to France, where late in the nineteenth century the vigorous movement of contemporary sculpture was splendidly initiated.

It is natural to find in France the initiation of such a movement for the Frenchman, like the Greek, turns instantly to sculpture as his natural means of artistic expression. However, French sculptors of today have left far behind the old dreary imitation of classical work; they care little for hackneyed subjects from mythology and romance, but occupy themselves with the ideas and ideals of their own day. Up to the second quarter of the last century, France, in common with other nations, was producing weak imitations of Greek and Roman sculpture, correct and elegant in form, but without a spark of nobility, imagination, or individuality. The regeneration was brought about by three pioneers, who led the next generation in sweeping away false standards and bringing to sculptural art the truth to nature, the sincerity, fire and force which it long had lacked. These men were David d' Angers (1789-1856), portraitist; Antoine Louis Barye (1796-1875), sculptor of animals; and François Rude, (1784-1855), whose work was chiefly ideal and monumental sculpture.

Since their day the barriers have vanished which debarred sculpture from showing originality of thought or concern with the problems of contemporary life; and its devotees are learning to embody the ideals peculiar to their own time,—to crystallize in marble one stage of the world's experience. Though we find practically no great religious



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sculpture, there is much magnificent monumental art. In no other country is it so positively required that a monument, if successful, shall be great artistically, as well as in its commemorative significance. The French appreciate that no other form of art is so well fitted to express patriotism and national pride, so adequate for doing honor to the illustrious dead. Such a group as Rodin's "Burghers of Calais" embodies the whole medieval spirit of sacrifice for the good of the commonwealth, and makes immortal the heroic men it commemorates. An artist whose chief interest lies in this field, is Frederic Auguste Bartholdi, who is sculptor of the Statue of Liberty in New York harbor, presented to us by France, and who also modeled the Statue of Lafayette in Union Square, New York. Bartholdi, born at Colmar, Alsace, in 1834, is represented in the Luxembourg Gallery, among other things, by the original model for the Statue of Liberty; and in the west side of Paris, along the Seine, there stands on the Pont de Grenelle, a bronze reproduction, on a smaller scale, of the same work.

In monumental and patriotic sculpture, by far the best loved subject is Joan of Arc, the wonderful girl-warrior, whom the Church of Rome seems about to place upon its Calendar of Saints, having just reopened the question of her canonization. Though many gifted French sculptors have devoted their energies to interpreting her many-sided character, the statue most spiritual in its import is perhaps that by Henri Chapu, now in the Luxembourg Gallery. It shows Joan in simple peasant costume enthralled by the heavenly visions; she kneels in the most unconscious attitude of absorption; and like all the work of Chapu, the portrayal is simple, without a trace of the theatrical, yet strong and appealing from its very simplicity. In decided contrast to this are the equestrian statues of the "Maid," which portray her in full armor, at the head of the troops. One of these, by Paul Dubois, shows her in a moment of intense action, with upraised sword and face turned heavenward; but far finer is that by Emmanuel Fremiet, where she sits upon her proudly pacing horse, quietly holding aloft

the banner of victory. She is seated with the slightly awkward pose of the unaccustomed peasant girl, and her earnest young face and figure are instinct with the tremendous spirit which made her so unique a personality. This statue stands on the Rue de Rivoli, looking down over the surging life of the Parisian thoroughfare, and upon it are hung the patriotic wreaths which yearly commemorate the unforgotten loss of Alsace and Lorraine. A quite different moment in the Maid's life was chosen for the statue by Ernest Barrias at Rouen, upon the hill-top overlooking the scene of her martyrdom; she is in full armor, but unmounted and with fettered hands.

There are among contemporary Frenchmen, several exponents of peasant life, who devote themselves to small poetic and rustic figures; Boucher being perhaps the most typical. There are also a number of very fine animal sculptors, worthy followers of the great Antoine Louis Barye who has been mentioned as one of the pioneers in the revolt from conventionalism which took place early in the nineteenth century. Barye's work was a marvel of scientific skill and absolute truth to nature; and while he devoted himself almost entirely to animal subjects, his knowledge of human anatomy was equally thorough.* At present Cain, Jacquemart, Fremiet and others are producing powerful studies of animal life; while among the younger artists, Gardet and Peter are well-known names.

Of late years many Frenchmen have interested themselves in polychromatic sculpture, experimenting in the use of color on marble, to support which they cite the example of the ancient Greeks. They also combine white, colored and veined marbles in busts and full length figures; often using white for the face and head, with variously colored marbles for the draperies, in which jewels and goldsmith-

*We are fortunate enough to have in Mt. Vernon Place, Baltimore, four groups by Barye, symbolical of "War," "Order," "Force," and "Peace," which show his mastery of the human form. In the Walters collection of Baltimore, his small bronzes of animals are finely represented. A "Tigress" by Cain is in Central Park, New York.

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Joan of Arc. Equestrian Statue by Paul Dubois, in Front of the Church of St. Augustin in Paris. This is a Replica of the Statue at Rheims.

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work are frequently set. The French have done exceedingly skilful and decorative work of this sort, some of it merely ingenious, but much that is sincere and beautiful. Among Americans, Herbert Adams has been conspicuously successful in producing tinted sculptures of exquisite character.

The art of the medallist too has been revived and exceptionally delightful things accomplished. Though the French always have been distinguished in this phase of sculpture, the artists of the past fifty years have carried it to heights never before attained. From the tiny medal to the large plaquette, they run the gamut of charm and of marvelous skill in the difficult field of low relief. Such productions as those of Oscar Roty, Chaplain, Dupuis, Patey, and many others, lend the collection of modern medals at the Luxembourg intense interest. Other beautiful examples of contemporary activity, to be seen in the Luxembourg and elsewhere, are the silver and ivory statuettes of Barrias and others, the miniature bronze groups of Charpentier, and the bewitching small marbles of Bartholomé. Among the many eminent names which have not been mentioned, are those of Dampt (famous for his winsome studies of children), Carpeaux, Falguière, Mercié, Saint-Marceaux, and Puech; the work of some of these artists is represented by casts in our galleries, notably that of the Chicago Art Institute.

The greatest French sculptor of his time, and probably the greatest France has ever produced, is Auguste Rodin, born in 1840, and now, after a life of struggle, conscientious labor and high aspiration, the acknowledged representative of the best in French art. His original and daring genius has called forth bitter criticism and keen jealousy in many quarters, and only within the past few years has he received anything like just appreciation.

In the very small group whose ideals closely resemble those of Rodin, we must place Jules Dalou and Albert Bartholomé,—the latter eight years Rodin's senior, and considered by many to stand next to him in genius. His work

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"Thought." By Auguste Rodin. In the Luxembourg Gallery.

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The Nest. By Aristide Croisy. In the Luxembourg Gallery.

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The Little St. John. By Dampt. In the Luxembourg Gallery.

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Joan of Arc. By Henri Chapu. In the Luxembourg Gallery.

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Side View of the Statue of Joan of Arc by Chapu.

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Joan of Arc. Equestrian Statue of Gilded Bronze by Emmanuel Fremiet. In the Rue de Rivoli, Paris.

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was to add to the written word, to the documentary and learned dissertations addressed to politicians, diplomats, and economists, the proof of tangible evidence which appeals to the masses. The International War and Peace Museum is, therefore, in its essence, the realization of that fundamental thought in the Peace propaganda of Bloch: "War shall bear witness against war: it is by its own sincerity that it shall reveal itself in its follies and horrors as the enemy of humanity." A cruel destiny willed that Jean de Bloch should be carried off by death some months before the inauguration of the Museum.

Divided into eleven sections, which comprise more than 4,000 objects, the Museum shows the development of military technic, the economic and social aspects of "armed peace" and the horrors of war. In the imposing "Hall of Peace" the visitor has a glimpse of the time to come, when the Nations, conscious of their common interests, will have recourse for the solution of their difficulties, no longer to the barbarous game of arms, but to the decision of an International Court of Arbitration.

The idea of graphically showing in a single collection samples of all kinds of man-killing weapons used in war: swords, daggers, spears, lances, arrows, pistols, muskets, rifles, cannon, etc., is a striking one, but to walk into such a collection armed only with a catalogue (obtainable in various languages, including English) is positively startling. The object lesson from a sight of more than 1,500 death dealing instruments of warfare, all the way from poisoned arrows to smokeless powder and quick firing Krupp cannon, is obviously impressive. Of course along with these appear the protective inventions so far as they have been devised, and there are also exhibits in detail not only of the actual effects of missiles on men and beasts but of the ambulance services. The killing or wounding efficiency of modern armament is particularly demonstrated in support of Bloch's theory of attaining such efficiency that war must eventually kill itself.

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Considerable sections of the Museum are devoted to

the history of tactics and strategy from the early ages down to the war in the Transvaal. Relief models of decisive battles in the world's history, Waterloo, etc., are extraordinary examples of achievement in behalf of the serious student. Auxiliary services of transport and communication are shown. Naval warfare has its special sections and there are dioramas (like our Eden Musee) showing a battery firing smokeless powder, English attacking the Boers, etc.

In the Peace section there are historic documents of political economy, international law, international arbitration, a collection of signed portraits and aphorisms of Peace advocates. The exhibit of paintings includes the pictures by the Dutch painter Jan Ten Kate presented to the Museum by the artist. Several of these, including "War Against War," have been reproduced in THE CHAUTAUQUAN this year in connection with the "Friendship of Nations" series.

The Museum was established in a wooden exposition building which must give way to a suitable building on another site if the collection is to be permanently preserved. Receipts from admissions each year are sufficient to provide for maintenance, general expense, and acquisition of new objects of interest, but efforts are making to raise $120,000 for the project. One-third will be undertaken at Lucerne, one-third secured on loan, and interest bearing shares for the other third have been offered to the public, a number of them at $100 each having been taken since the Munich Peace Congress. Dr. J. Zimmerli is the active vice-president of the managing committee of the Museum at Lucerne.

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The International Museum of War and Peace, Lucerne.

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# The Vesper Hour

Conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent

## The Un-Christian Nature of War*

By William Ellery Channing

I have written once and again on war,—a hackneyed subject, as it is called, yet one would think too terrible ever to become a commonplace. Is this insanity never to cease? At this moment, whilst I write, two of the freest and most enlightened nations, having one origin, bound together above all others by mutual dependence, by the interweaving of interests, are thought by some to be on the brink of war. False notions of national honor, as false and unholy as those of the duelist, do most towards fanning this fire. Great nations, like great boys, place their honor in resisting insult and in fighting well. One would think the time had gone by in which nations needed to rush to arms to prove that they were not cowards. If there is one truth which history has taught, it is that communities in all stages of society, from the most barbarous to the most civilized, have sufficient courage. No people can charge upon its conscience that it has not shed blood enough in proof of its valor. Almost any man, under the usual stimulus of the camp, can stand fire. The poor wretch enlisted from a dramshop and turned into the ranks soon fights like a "hero." Must France and England and America, after so many hard-fought fields, go to war to disprove the charge of wanting spirit? Is it not time that the point of honor should undergo some change, that some glimpses at least of the true glory of a nation should be caught by rulers and people? "It is the honor of a man to pass over a transgression," and so it is of states. To be wronged is no disgrace. To bear wrong generously, till every means of conciliation is exhausted; to recoil with manly dread from the slaughter of our fellow-creatures; to put confidence in the justice which other nations will do to our motives; to have that consciousness of courage which

*From "Discourses on War."



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will make us scorn the reproach of cowardice; to feel that there is something grander than the virtue of savages; to desire peace for the world as well as ourselves; and to shrink from kindling a flame which may involve the world, —these are the principles and feelings which do honor to a people. Has not the time come when a nation professing these may cast itself on the candor of mankind? Must fresh blood flow forever, to keep clean the escutcheon of a nation's glory? For one, I look on war with a horror which no words can express. I have long wanted patience to read of battles. Were the world of my mind, no man would fight for glory; for the name of a commander, who has no other claim to respect, seldom passes my lips, and the want of sympathy drives him from my mind. The thought of man, God's immortal child, butchered by his brother; the thought of sea and land stained with human blood by human hands, of women and children buried under the ruins of besieged cities, of the resources of empires and the mighty powers of nature all turned by man's malignity into engines of torture and destruction,—this thought gives to earth the semblance of hell. I shudder as among demons. I cannot now, as I once did, talk lightly, thoughtlessly, of fighting with this or that nation. That nation is no longer an abstraction to me. It is no longer a vague mass. It spreads out before me into individuals, in a thousand interesting forms and relations. It consists of husbands and wives, parents and children, who love one another as I love my home. It consists of affectionate women and sweet children. It consists of Christians, united with me to the common Savior, and in whose spirit I reverence the likeness of his divine virtue. It consists of a vast multitude of laborers at the plow and in the workshop, whose toils I sympathize with, whose burden I should rejoice to lighten, and for whose elevation I have pleaded. It consists of men of science, taste, genius, whose writings have beguiled my solitary hours and given life to my intellect and best affections. Here is the nation which I am called to fight with, into whose families I must send mourning, whose fall or humiliation I must seek through

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blood. I cannot do it without a clear commission from God. I love this nation. Its men and women are my brothers and sisters. I could not without unutterable pain thrust a sword into their hearts. If, indeed, my country were invaded by hostile armies, I should strive to repel them, just as I should repel a criminal who should enter my house to slay what I hold most dear, and what is intrusted to my care. But I cannot confound with such a case the common instances of war. In general, war is the work of ambitious men, whose principles have gained no strength from the experience of public life, whose policy is colored if not swayed by personal views or party interests, who do not seek peace with a single heart, who to secure doubtful rights perplex the foreign relations of the state, spread jealousies at home and abroad, enlist popular passions on the side of strife, commit themselves too far for retreat, and are then forced to leave to the arbitration of the sword what an impartial umpire could easily have arranged. The question of peace and war is too often settled for a country by men in whom a Christian, a lover of his race, can put little or no trust; and, at the bidding of such men, is he to steep his hands in human blood? But this insanity is passing away. This savageness cannot endure, however hardened to it men are by long use. The hope of waking up some from their lethargy has induced me to recur to this topic so often in my writings.

## From "The Moral Damage of War"*

By Walter Walsh

Evolution has surely brought the nations so far up from the beast to the angel as to permit them to relegate armed conflict to the same limbo as the vendetta, blood feud, duel, street fight, and every form of private war. The philosophy of history is now able to characterize it as

*"The Moral Damage of War," published by Ginn & Co. for the International Union, contains twelve essays which treat of war from various points of view, as for example: "The Moral Damage of War to the Nation," "To the Child," "To the Soldier," "To the Citizen," "To the Patriot," etc.

an anacronism, politics to characterize it as a blunder, ethics as a barbarism, law as a crime, and religion as a sin. Civilized man can now pierce through the glamor of the battlefield to its essential savagery, and turn from it with as much disgust as an epicure from a cannibal carnival. And as cannibalism and human sacrifice were at first associated with the sacred rites of religion, but have gradually been discarded until they have become symbols of the most repulsive forms of murder and blasphemy, so those very wars which custom and tribal egoism have sanctified as the birth throes of freedom and religion are surely coming to be classed among the mistakes and failures proper only to a lower age. It is certain that freedom would have been ampler, religion purer, without the bloody orgies which were wont to be lauded as necessary to their birth or to defend their helpless infancy. Mars has proved but a clumsy midwife to the child Freedom and the child Religion, maiming his offspring at the birth even where he did not kill them outright. Developed man is more and more offended by a coarse brutality which sets the bloody hand of the soldier to cut that knot the statesman's bungling fingers were too thick to untie, or (absurdest anti-climax of all) to carve out that dogma the theologian's blundering brain was too dull to prove. Except in Bunyan's sense, the talk of "holy war" palsies the lip of the modern man, who is coming to ask himself what "holiness" has to do in any case with that which has been described as "hell" and "the sum of all villainies."

The fullness of the age has come. "The time is ripe, and rotten-ripe, for change." Christendom has now to be persuaded to accept a Christian basis to its society,—that basis on which the first Christian communities built themselves up to a height of moral splendor and influence, presenting a most illustrious contrast to those weltering gulfs which divide their time from ours; that basis on which the teacher of Christendom staked his all,—Love. In accepting such a basis Christendom must necessarily reject that on which it is at present founded, that which it adopted from

the Roman empire,—Force. Brotherhood based on love, in place of selfishness based on force, is the goal towards which the modern world must be steadily pushed. One of the earliest words of Jewish liberalism gives the keynote to our latest civilization: "Come now, and let us reason together." Friendly settlement of disputes seems to be the next link in the chain of social evolution. Paine's "Age of Reason" is a century nearer than at his time, and more than a century nearer in the widening of man's intellectual outlook and the deepening of his humanist convictions. Nationalism is being keyed to brotherhood; the national is finding the international not inconsistent with itself. The principle of feudalism is more and more emerging into view as steam and electricity bring the ends of the earth together. The conception of human solidarity is passing over from the poet to the politician. Those occasions on which people fly to arms are notably becoming fewer, while those on which they proceed to arbitrate as visibly multiply.

Speculation as to the political form likely to be taken by the internationalism of the future does not enter into the scope of this treatise. It may be that an international congress will be constituted to settle lines of common and united action in a spirit of brotherhood and nationality. It may be that The Hague Conference and Convention are the actual seed germ of "the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world," translated at last from poetry to politics. It may be that the United States of America will be followed by a United States of Europe, of Asia, of Africa, all finally merging into the United States of the World. The method will be slowly shaped out of existing political conditions. It is enough for the peace advocate to create the spirit. His present duty is to substitute neighborliness for jealousy, duties for rights, reverence for contempt, sympathy for suspicion, helpfulness for hostility, sacrifice for slaughter, martyrdom for murder. The great and gracious words with which Emerson concludes his essay on "Politics" must be shown to be as practicable as they are lofty: "The power of love, as the basis of a state, has never been tried."

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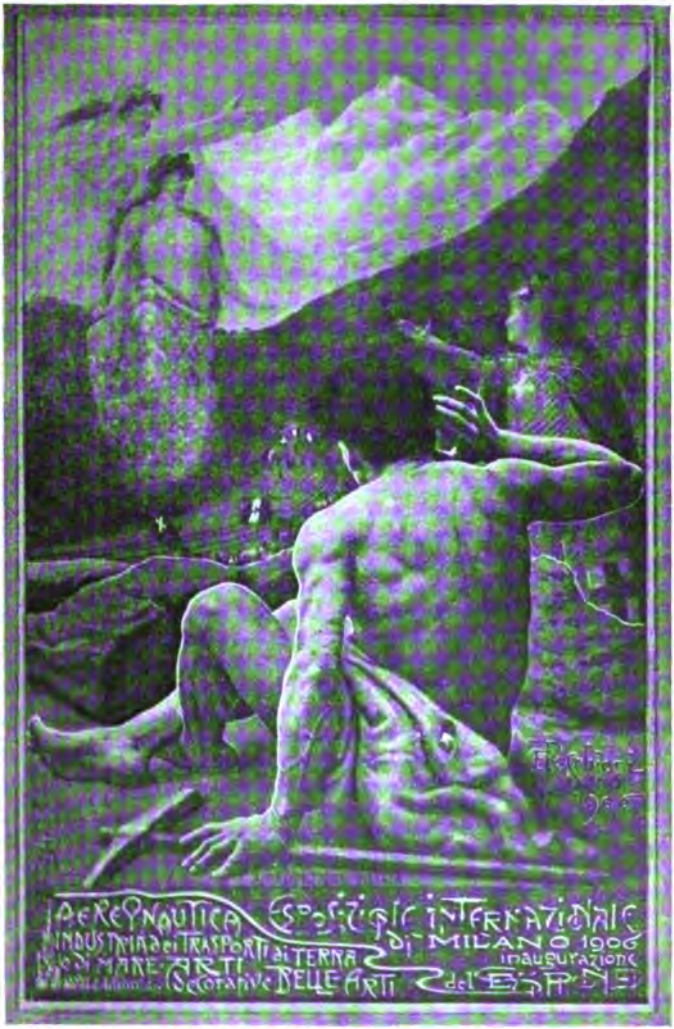


**Poster of the International Exposition of Milan, 1906, Celebrating the Opening of the Simplon Tunnel.**

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Are our methods now so excellent that all competition is hopeless? Could not a nation of friends even devise better ways? . . . We live in a very low state of the world, and pay unwilling tribute to governments founded on force. There is not, among the most religious and instructed men of the most religious and civil nations, a reliance on the moral sentiment, and a sufficient belief in the unity of things, to persuade them that society can be maintained without artificial restraints, as well as the solar system; or that the private citizen might be reasonable, and a good neighbor, without the hint of a jail or a confiscation. What is strange, too, there never was in any man sufficient faith in the power of rectitude, to inspire him with the broad design of renovating the state on the principle of right and love. . . I have just been conversing with one man, to whom no weight of adverse experience will make it for a moment appear impossible, that thousands of human beings might exercise towards each other the grandest and simplest sentiments, as well as a knot of friends, or a pair of lovers."

# A Sculptural Portrayal of Maeterlinck's "The Blind"—Lorado Taft's Notable Work

THE Chicago sculptor, Lorado Taft, recently exhibited a remarkable group illustrating his conception of Maeterlinck's allegorical drama, "The Blind." At the request of the editors of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Mr. Taft in a recent communication has told how he came to conceive of the work and bring it to its present form. Mr. Taft's letter follows:

"Some of Maeterlinck's early works are quite beyond me. I have not tried very hard, to be sure, to comprehend

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Maurice Maeterlinck, Belgian Dramatist and Philosopher, Author of "The Blind."

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"The Blind." By Lorado Taft. Group Symbolizing Maeterlinck's Drama of That Name.

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them, but two more or less impatient perusals of "The Seven Princesses" and "The Princess Maleine" have convinced me that life is too short. At least my life is! I leave them to lovers of the occult.

"'The Intruder,' however, and 'The Blind' made from the first a profound impression upon me, and many readings have in no wise diminished their appeal. It was the symbolism of 'The Blind' that gripped me, its significance; it did not occur to me for some time that the tragic playlet was capable of sculptural representation. Perhaps it is not—so we are told by some of the critics.

"The necessity for providing extensive 'projects' for my class at the Art Institute of Chicago has somewhat enlarged my views of the scope of sculptural themes. My pupils have even undertaken groups and circles of figures numbering up to nearly thirty, for the sake of collaborative practice. Our much-discussed 'Nymph Fountain,' 'A Primitive Burial,' and 'An Incident in the Temple,' were among these ephemeral productions of the Art Institute 'bottega;' works designed and executed with much enthusiasm and as useful to the students as they proved to be interesting to the general public. The unconventionality and emotional power of Rodin's 'Burghers of Calais' has always had a strong grip on me and I have no doubt that these unusual school studies were suggested or at least strongly influenced by that remarkable work.

"While we were modelling the 'Incident in the Temple, I chanced to read again 'The Blind' and this time I saw in it all kinds of sculptural *motifs*. The dead priest leaning against the tree-trunk; the entire opening scene—the semicircle of awakening figures in their various attitudes of impotency and suspense. But such art may easily become depressing; it leads nowhere. Besides it is diffuse, panorama-like, instead of partaking of the compactness which is the primary attribute of great sculpture.

"As the slight action of the little drama progresses and gloom settles over all, the figures are drawn together for mutual protection. They cling to each other in expectancy

and fear. The group becomes unified but it is still permeated with that awful agony of suspense, the fear of the Unseen. Then the young girl with the faith of second-sight recognizes in the sob of the child a promise of salvation: 'The child sees; the child will lead us,' she cries exultingly, and, snatching the little one from its mad mother's arms, lifts it high to find the guiding gleam which must be somewhere on the horizon. This is the artist's moment. Never mind if the play ends with a baby's trembling wail and the curtain of darkness descends upon the tragic despairing group. It is the symbol of hope that is worthy of eternalization, of that hope that springs eternal in the human breast; the confidence and joyousness of youth. We may be downcast, weary and oppressed by the mystery of life—the Why and the Whither—but the promise of the next generation makes it all right. We are strengthened by the unquestioning confidence and eagerness of these little ones. This trust rebukes our sombre misgivings.

"And so I composed my strange group. First the tiny sketch with little figures, some two inches high, barely suggested. Only I knew 'which was which,' and then the eight-inch sketch, born one glad enthusiastic Sunday out at 'camp' on the Rock River. Next came the 'working model' with figures two feet high and all the heads and little hands carefully elaborated. This was a work of some six weeks, perhaps, with all the experimenting, cutting, and trying. Very happy weeks these, when the worker loses himself quite in his work and thinks nothing else, dreaming of it o' nights. The spirit became contagious; the entire artist colony took to reading 'The Blind' and before the season was over we acted it in the autumn twilight under the 'immemorial oaks,' reciting our parts in quaint French, enveloped all in weird institutional cloaks made from old tent-flys.

"The experimenting had to do largely with the young man of the uplifted arms. Should I contradict my own confession of faith, I who enjoy best the group that 'could be rolled down hill without breaking anything off?' The arms of the deaf-mute were lifted and taken down many times

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before I was reconciled, but the mass became so serene and expressionless from a distance, without these exclamation points, that they were finally lifted to stay. The deaf one had wanted to sleep while the others had agonized. Their fears finally penetrated him and now, although they have a ray of hope, he, bewildered and doomed, lifts himself high and shrieks to Heaven his despair. My assistants always called him 'the shriek.'

"It was now their turn; these loyal helpers were eager to have a hand in the work. In a way they were already stockholders to that extent, for while I had employed no model I had borrowed a hand now and then. Winter was upon us before the enlargement began in 'The Barn' in Chicago, and, as usual, the lecture engagements called the writer away when he thought himself most needed at home. Not a bit of it! Those girls went to work hammer and saw, and built up the entire frame-work of wood, a beautiful art-nouveau hen-coop or Filipino residence, as you please, and had the clay all on before my return. It was done accurately, too; not a thing to alter; nothing to do but to 'finish.' To be sure this required some nine months, and there are those who think the group never has been 'finished' at all! For some reason we at 'The Barn' are not interested in wax-works and stuffed figures with real clothes, nor in sculpture that looks like them. To us it was the heads and hands of these poor people that were eloquent; we felt that the clothing should be subordinate and only sketched. Hence the broad, blank spaces and the flat simple planes. They were intended as foils to the elaborated parts, to enhance their effect.

"Whether the method is right or not, whether the group is 'sculpture' or not, it has been a privilege to know that my work has spoken to many hearts.

"Lorado Taft."

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# Home Life in Germany

HERR RIEHL ON WOMEN.

"Home Life in Germany," recently published by the Macmillans, might almost be regarded as a companion to Baker's "Seen in Germany" so admirably do the two books supplement each other. The latter, written by an American, concerns itself with the activities of men. Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick the author of "Home Life in Germany" is an Englishwoman, who has absorbed many impressions of the Fatherland from her German parents and supplemented these by numerous trips across the channel. She confesses to a human interest in the details of home life, such details as a woman would be likely to set forth if she wrote a book, "not much about ancestral laws and politics, but what the people said to each other when there were no outsiders around," "what they ate and what they wore and how they governed their homes, the relationship between husband and wife, parents and children, master and servant; in what way they fought the battle of life, how they feasted and how they mourned." And she proceeds to write such a book about Germany, frankly admitting that Germany is many sided and that her contribution can only picture the things which she has seen. But she has seen with discrimination and she possesses the art of the famous old writers of memoirs. The book is penetrating, gossipy and altogether fascinating. The following selection from her chapter entitled "Riehl on Women" will explain the kind of antagonism which the progressive German woman, as described by Fraulein Kettler in the March CHAUTAUQUAN has had to encounter:



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Germany's Experiment with Sickly Children. Open air school near Charlottenberg, described by Mrs. Sidgwick in "Home Life in Germany."

Not long ago I heard a German professor say that anyone who wanted to speak with authority about the German family must read "Die Familie" by W. H. Riehl. He said that, amongst other things, this important work explained why men went to the *Kneipe,* because they were fond of home life; and also what was the sphere of women. I thought it would be useful to have both these points settled; besides, I asked several wise Germans about the book, and they all nodded their heads and said it was a good one. So I got it, and was surprised to find it came out in 1854. I thought ideas about women had advanced since then, even in Germany, though a German friend had warned me just before my last visit not to expect much in this way. She made a movement with her lips as if she was blowing a bit of thistledown from her. "Remember," she said, "that is what you will be directly you get there—nothing at all." But I had been to Germany so often that I was prepared to be "nothing at all" for a time, and not mind it much. What I wanted to discover was how far German women had arrived at being "something" in the eyes of their men. In my eyes they had always been a good deal: admirable wives and mothers, for instance, patient, capable, thrifty, and self-sacrificing. At first I thought that my friend was wrong, and that women of late years had made great strides in Germany. I met single women who had careers and homes of their own and were quite cheerful. When you are old enough to look back twenty of thirty years and remember the blight there used to be on the "old maid," and the narrow gossiping life she was driven to lead, you must admit that these contented bachelor wo-

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men have done a good deal to emancipate themselves. In England they have been with us for a long time, but formerly I had not come across them in Germany. On the contrary, I well remember my amazement as a girl at hearing a sane ablebodied single woman of sixty say she had naturally not ventured on a summer journey to Switzerland till some man who looked after her money affairs, but was in no way related, had given her his consent. I did once hear a German boast of having struck his wife in order to bring her to submission. He was not a common type, however. German men, on the whole, treat their womenfolk kindly, but never as their equals. Over and over again German women have told me they envied the wives of Englishmen, and I should say that it is impossible for an English woman to be in Germany without feeling, if she understands what is going on around her, that she has suddenly lost caste. She is "nothing at all" because she is a woman: to be treated with gallantry if she is young and pretty, and as a negligible quantity if she is not. That perhaps is a bitter description of what really takes place, but after reading Herr Riehl, and hearing that his ideas are still widely accepted in Germany, I am not much afraid of being unjust. His own arguments convict the men of the nation in a measure nothing I could say would. They are in extreme opposition to the ideas fermenting amongst modern women there, and the strange fact that they are not regarded as quite out of date makes them interesting.

Herr Riehl's theory, to put it in a nutshell, is that the family is all important, and the individual, if she is a woman, is of no importance at all. He does not object to her being yoked to a plough, because then she is working for the family, but he would forbid her, if he could, to enter any profession that would make her independent of the family. She is not to practice any art, and if she "commences author" it is a sure sign that she is ugly, soured, and bitter. In any country where they are allowed to rule, and even in any country where they distinguish themselves in art and literature, civilization as well as statecraft must be at a standstill. Queen Elizabeth and Maria Theresa were evidently awkward people for a man laying down this theory to encounter, so he goes out of his way to say that they were not women at all, but men in women's clothes. Moreover, he has no doubt that the Salic law must ultimately prevail everywhere.

A woman has no independent existence: he says she is taught from childhood to be subordinate to others; she cannot go out by herself with propriety; she is not a complete creature till she finds a mate. The unlucky women who never find one (more than 400,000 in Germany) are not to make any kind of career for themselves,

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either humble or glorious. Each one is to search carefully for relatives who will give her a corner in their house, and allow her to work for them. If no one wants her she may live with other women and bring up poor children. He would allow women some education. Far be it from him to think that women are to remain in compulsory ignorance. But their education is to be "womanly," and carried on in the family. Women teachers in public schools he considered a danger to the State, and he would send all girls till they reach their twelfth or fourteenth year to the elementary schools, where they would be taught by men and associate with bare-footed children. Woman, in short, is to learn how to be woman at home, and how not to be superwoman in school. She may even have some instruction in art and science, but only a limited instruction that will not encroach on her duty to the family.

The fate of lonely single women is much on Herr Riehl's mind. What are we to do with them? he asks despairingly. "What is to become of the army of innocent creatures, with means, without a craft, doomed to an aimless, disappointed life. Shall we shut them up in convents? Shall we buy them into Stifts? Shall we send them to Australia? Shall we put an end to them?" Quite in the manner of Dogberry, he answers his own questions. Let them go their ways as before, he says. He knows there is no short cut to social generation, and he will not recommend one, not even extirpation. He points out that the working women of Germany have never asked to be on an equality with men. The lower you descend in the social scale the less sharply women are differentiated from men, and the worse time women have in consequence. The wife of a peasant is only his equal in one respect: she works as hard as he does. Otherwise she is his serf. The sole public position allowed to a woman in a village is that of gooseherd; while those original minds who in other circumstances would take to authorship or painting have to wait, if they are peasants, till they are old, when they can take to fortune-telling and witchcraft. Herr Riehl admits that the lot of women when they are peasants is not a happy one. He does not make the admission because he thinks it of much consequence, but because it illustrates his argument that the less "feminine" women are the less power they exercise. He has no great fault to find with the peasant's household, where the wife is a beast of burden in the field and a slave indoors, bears children in quick succession, is old before her time, and sacrifices herself body and soul to the family. But he points out that on a higher social plane, where women are more unlike men, more distinctively feminine, the position they take is more honorable. Yet it is these same "superfeminine" women who are foolishly claiming equality with men.

Herr Riehl's views expressed in English seem a little behind

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the times, here and there more than a little brutal. He speaks with sympathy of suttee, and he quotes the Volga-Kalmucks with approval. This tribe, it seems, "treat their wives with the most exquisite patriarchal courtesy; but directly the wife neglects a household duty courtesy ceases (for the *genius* of the house is more important than the personal dignity of the wife), and the sinner is castigated (*wird tüchtig durch-gepeitscht*). The whip used, the household sword and sceptre, is handed down from generation to generation as a sacred heirloom." I have translated this passage instead of alluding to it, because I thought it was an occasion on which Herr Riehl should literally speak for himself. * * * * * * * *

He arrives at some curious conclusions when he discusses the German's habit of turning the beer-house into a sort of club that he calls his *kneipe*. Other races can drink, he says; *aber bloss die germanischen konnen kneipen*—only the German peoples can make themselves at home in an inn. What does the *Stammgast*, the regular guest, ask but the ways of home? the same chair every night, the same corner, the same glass, the same wine; and where there is a *Stammtisch* the same companions. He sees that family life is more or less destroyed when the men of the household spend their leisure hours, and especially their evenings, at an inn, but he says that the homelike surroundings of the *Kneipe* prove the German's love of home. In fact, he suggests that even the habitual drunkard is often a weak, amiable creature cut out for family life; only he has sought it at the public-house instead of on his own hearth.

Herr Riehl is, in fact, deeply concerned to see amongst his countryfolk a gradual slackening of family ties, a widespread selfish individualism amongst women, an abdication of duty and authority amongst men. His views about women sound outrageous to-day, chiefly because he wants to apply them to all women without distinction; and also because they display a total want of consideration for the welfare and the wishes of women themselves. But his position is interesting, because with some modifications it is the position still taken by the majority of German men; naturally, not by the most advanced and intelligent, but by the average German from the Spree to the Danube. He thinks that woman was made for man, and that if she has board, lodging, and raiment, according to the means of her menfolk, she has all she can possibly ask of life. When her menfolk are peasants, she must work in the fields; when they belong to the middle or upper classes, her place is in the kitchen and the nursery. Unless he is exceptionally intelligent he does not understand that this simple rule is complicated by modern economic conditions, and by the enormous number of women thrown on their own resources. He would send them as Herr Riehl did, to the kitchens and nurseries of other people; or he would give up the

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problem in despair, as Herr Riehl did, admitting with a sigh that modern humanitarianism forbids the establishment of a lethal chamber for the superfluous members of the weaker sex.

The most modern German women are in direct opposition to Herr Riehl, and it must be said that some of their leaders are enthusiastic rather than sensible. They are drunk with the freedom they claim in a country where women are not even allowed to attend a political meeting except with the express consent of the police. In their ravings against the tyranny of men they lose all historical sense, just as an American does when he describes a mediaeval crime as if it had been committed by a European with a twentieth-century conscience.

They charge men with keeping half humanity in a degrading state of slavery, and attribute all the sins of civilization to the enforced ignorance and helplessness of women. Their contempt for their masters is almost beyond the German language to express, eloquently as they use it. They demand equality of education and opportunity, but they do not want to be men. Far be such a desire from their minds. They mean to be something much better. To what a pass have men brought the world, they ask? How much better would manners and morals and politics be in the hands of women! They repel with indignation the taunt that women have no right to govern the State because their bodies are too weak to defend it. They point out with a gleam of sense and justice that the mother of children does serve the State in a supremely important way; and for that matter they are willing to take many State duties on their shoulders, and to train for them as arduously and regularly as men train for the wretched business of killing each other. They will not mate with those poor things—modern men—under the existing marriage laws. They refuse to be household beasts of burden a day longer. Life, life to the dregs with all its joys and all its responsibilities, is what they want, and love if it comes their way. But not marriage. Young Siegfrieds they ask for, young lions. Here one bewildered reader rubbed her eyes; for she had just heard Siegfried and the Götterdammerung again, and sometimes she reads in the Nibelungenlied; and if ever a man won a woman with his club, by muscle seemingly, by magic really, but anyhow by sheer bodily strength, was not that man Siegfried? and was not that woman Brunnhilde?

Yet here is the last development in women, the woman who refuses as an outrage both the theory of masculine superiority and the fact so evident in Germany of masculine domination, here is the self-constituted superwoman calling as if she was Eve to the primeval male. It may be perverse of me, but my imagination refuses to behold them mated.

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"Out of thy beautiful life there comes a tone
Of power, of love, of trust, a prophecy."—*E. R. Sill.*

Mrs. John H. Vincent, wife of Bishop Vincent, Chautauqua's Chancellor, died at her home in Indianapolis on the 31st of March, after an illness extending over two years. Although these two years were years of constant suffering, her patient courage never failed and at the end death came to her in its gentlest form. Mrs. Vincent was a woman of rare quality and to her influence Chautauqua owes much. She was deeply interested in the movement from the beginning, spending every summer at Chautauqua except during the time when Bishop Vincent was stationed in Zürich, Switzerland, and the last two years when she was confined to her home. She was early impressed with the importance of the work of the C. L. S. C. and graduated with the Class of 1892, entering into its activities most heartily. The following sketch of her life as it appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN WEEKLY and the accompanying portrait taken very recently, will be of interest to her many friends as well as to that wider circle of readers who have shared in the upbuilding of Chautauqua.

Elizabeth Dusenbury Vincent, daughter of Henry B. and Caroline Butler Dusenbury, was born February 27, 1832, at Deposit, New York. Her girlhood was spent at Portville, Cattaraugus County,



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Mrs. John H. Vincent and Her Son, George E. Vincent, President of Chautauqua Institution.

New York, where her father was a pioneer lumberman, miller, and merchant. She attended the local school, spent two years (1845-47) at a private school in Binghamton, New York, and during the years 1850-52 completed her formal education at the Genesee Wesleyan Seminary at Lima, New York. In 1854 she taught school at Macedon, New York, and in 1855 and 1856 was a teacher in the High School at Joliet, Illinois. While visiting friends in Joliet in 1857, she met Rev. John H. Vincent, to whom she was married a year later. The only child of this marriage was born at Rockford, Illinois, in 1864, George Edgar Vincent, President of Chautauqua Institution and Dean of the Faculties of the University of Chicago. Reared in the Presbyterian Church, Mrs. Vincent at her marriage joined the church of her husband. She was a woman of high ideals, of firmness of character and of singular sanity. Those who knew her respected her judgment as much as they admired her steadfastness for righteousness. All her life Mrs. Vincent was an absorbed reader of the best literature and up to within a few weeks of the end she found solace and even relief from pain in the companionship of good books. Although she never shared in the organized activities of women, Mrs. Vincent took an intelligent interest in

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public affairs, which she followed regularly in the daily and weekly press. Her private philanthropies were unobtrusive, but systematic and generous. She disliked parade and shrank from effusiveness of phrase and sentiment. One of her last wishes was the half-humorous, half-earnest expression of hope that her husband and son would refrain from extravagant eulogy.

IMPORTANT NOTICE TO THE CLASS OF 1909.

During the month of May a special circular is sent out from the office at Chautauqua to each member of the graduating class. This circular is entitled "Report Blank and Final Address to the Graduating Class." It contains blank spaces for report of the four years' reading and the seals for which, if any, the candidate has made the necessary returns. The blank contains also the dates of Recognition Days at all the Chautauquas with time limit for sending in reports. Any member who fails to receive this blank by June 1 should notify the office at Chautauqua, New York.

If you are a 1909 and haven't quite finished your reading don't forget that a little extra effort and careful planning will enable you to graduate with your class. No written reviews are required. You can graduate honorably by simply reporting the four years' reading, and if you like to fill out the review questions later you can add seals to your diploma. You will never regret making a special effort to finish your course. If you receive your diploma at home, you have until next October to finish the reading.

Recognition Day at Chautauqua for the Class of 1909 will occur on Wednesday, August 18th. The Baccalaureate Sermon will be preached by Chancellor John H. Vincent on Sunday preceding Recognition Day.

THE DIVINE COMEDY.

It has been a pleasant custom in recent years for each C. L. S. C. Class to select for its patron saint some person of literary eminence, preferably a poet. The 1909's selection of Dante has stimulated many readers to a more attentive

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study of the Divine Comedy, and as the time of graduation approaches others will like to read and re-read this famous work, in part at least. Professor Kuhns' selections in the Chautauqua volume "Studies in the Poetry of Italy" give one a vivid impression of the quality of the poem, but the best possible effect will be gained from reading it entire. This is not by any means an impossible task for a busy person, and if, while reading, especially beautiful passages are marked they can be easily referred to and with each re-reading their charm will be the greater. After such an experience one will enjoy especially Longfellow's beautiful introduction to his translation of the Divine Comedy beginning:

"Oft have I seen at some cathedral door
A laborer pausing in the dust and heat
Lay down his burden, and with reverent feet
Enter, and cross himself, and on the floor
Kneel to repeat his paternoster o'er."

LETTERS FROM THE 1909'S.

The members of the Dante Class continue to report progress, and from their retrospective views of what the course has brought to them it is evident that they have been stimulated to do much outside reading. Certain of the four years' studies have made a special appeal to these readers filling gaps in their education or preparing them for foreign travel. Only a few of the multitude of letters received can be quoted here, but these are thoroughly representative of the class spirit:

FROM COLORADO: "I think my most interesting experiences were our afternoons with Shakespeare, Tennyson, and Browning and I have read aloud to the Class while they worked, Scarlet Letter, Tale of Two Cities and others. But personally the congenial work has helped me through times of trouble and recently it has helped to pull me together from a period of deep sorrow. I feel that I am a much stronger woman on account of the C. L. S. C".

FROM ALABAMA: "I enjoyed the two years with the Circle as most of them were congenial friends. As I now live in the country I feel the need of such a course more than ever. I hope to be able to continue and to take up the Bible course. The course has cost me $20 for books and $22 for a dictionary, a total of $42, but I feel the benefit derived has been inestimable."

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A member of the Class of 1909 says: "These Thanksgiving and Christmas birds have been the means each year of defraying my C. L. S. C. expenses."

FROM NEW YORK STATE: "The lighter travel articles have been read aloud to the family and "Seen in Germany" is being read aloud at the breakfast table. This year's magazines with the Holland articles are loaned as fast as they come, to a prospective traveler. The four years' work has filled me with a desire to study history and to put in my time on the great books that count. Also it has helped me to assist a few others in choosing some of the good books which THE CHAUTAUQUAN has made me familiar with. The C. L. S. C. is absolutely the best thing known to keep one from that mental slouch which is liable to attack anyone after being out of school a few years."

FROM IOWA: "I have aimed to read some reference books in connection with the lessons, or looked up something outside which was explanatory. I have just finished Hugo's "Ninety Three," Moliere's "Tartuffe" and "Don Juan." It may be of interest to say that the Chautauqua work was begun by me when three score and ten were passed and that I have enjoyed the course very much."

FROM BON AIR, VIRGINIA: "As an outcome of a Chautauqua Circle we had here some years ago, you may be interested to know that we have now quite a flourishing library in a building erected especially for it."

FROM NEW YORK STATE: "I do my reading mostly in the evening and sometimes when I have the time at the office where I am employed as stenographer. The four years' reading has been very helpful to me as I very much enjoy the meetings of our Circle. I think the discussions I enjoyed most were those in connection with Jane Addams' book "Newer Ideals of Peace," also "Rational Living." I think indirectly the Chautauqua course interested me in a small

public library recently started in Wilmington, N. C., my native town, which I visited last fall. There are no Chautauquans down there to my knowledge, but think possibly if I could have remained longer I might have been instrumental in starting a circle. However, our circle is going to send some books down to them, and I know they will be very welcome as their library is very limited."

FROM MICHIGAN: "I shall always recall with pleasure 'A History of Greek Art.' At the time I read that book I had the opportunity of making frequent visits to the New York Metropolitan Museum of Art, and my capacity for appreciation of what I saw there had been palpably increased because of the C. L. S. C. I am looking forward to future Chautauqua readings with delight."

FROM NEW YORK: "There have been many experiences in connection with the course which have given me great pleasure, but above all others has been that of being able to keep in touch with my daughter in college as I could not have done had it not been for the C. L. S. C. It 's almost with a feeling of regret that I finish the four years, but I expect always to be a C. L. S. C. reader."

## THE LITERATURE OF THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

Mr. Edwin D. Mead, author of an article in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN series on "The Friendship of Nations," is one of the vice presidents of the American Peace Society and editor of the International Library series of books devoted to the cause of peace. Last February, Mr. Mead made an extended "peace tour" through the South and West giving addresses before business and professional men, college students, and others. His article in this number leaves nothing to be desired in the way of suggestions for the observance of International Peace Day on May 18. His review of the literature of the peace movement is most valuable, not merely for its discrimination but for the impression it leaves with us of far-seeing men and women who through even the dark centuries have persistently cherished the ideal of world brotherhood.

## THE SECOND NATIONAL PEACE CONGRESS, CHICAGO, MAY 3-5, 1909.

The First National Peace Congress, held in New York City in 1907, undoubtedly as Mr. Mead says, "the largest peace demonstration which the world has seen," is to be followed by a Second National Peace Congress to be held in

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Hermann Sudermann.

Gerhart Hauptmann.

Emile Zola.

Henrik Ibsen.

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Chicago May 3-5 of this year. One of the objects of this congress is to consider what subjects should be taken up by the Third Hague Conference. Speakers of world-wide reputation will be present from many lands and it is believed that this congress will contribute not a little to the progress of the world. One of its sessions will be devoted to women's interest in the Peace Movement and a letter sent out by the Committee on Women's Organizations contains the following appeal closing with the urgent request that every woman's organization should send a delegate:

The National Peace Congress, which will be held in Chicago the beginning of May, is an event in which women especially should be interested and to which they should give very hearty co-operation. The Peace Movement is of vital importance to women, not alone because of the loss of father, husband or son, but also because to the grief of such loss is added the economic pressure which war lays on the women of the country. In all those lands where large standing armies are a part of the government, economic conditions are especially hard on women, as they, by their labor, must supplement the lack of the labor of men who leave their homes to become soldiers. More and more throughout the civilized world the Peace Movement is making its way and the interdependence of the nations is being constantly emphasized by the extension of industry and commercial intercourse. As war is the destroyer of the home, so it behooves women, the home makers, to do all in their power to further the cause of arbitration and fraternity among nations.

An urgent appeal also to all societies and organizations including peace and arbitration societies, state and city governments, bar associations, chambers of commerce, colleges, clubs of every kind, law schools, labor organizations, etc., to send official delegates to this Congress, has been issued by the general committee, and circulars setting forth the plans of the Congress can be secured from the Secretary, R. L. Melendy, 174 Adams street, Chicago.

It is hoped that many Chautauqua Circles will find it convenient to send delegates. The reports of this Congress can be made a very telling feature of local celebrations of International Peace Day.

RECENT NEWS OF INTERNATIONAL FRATERNITY.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN is glad to indorse very heartily Mr. Mead's suggestion that our readers make the acquaintance of *The Advocate of Peace*. Single copies of this most

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interesting publication can be secured for ten cents each from the office at 31 Beacon street, Boston, Mass., and the latest numbers from January to April are very important for Circles planning to celebrate International Peace Day. The March number gives some statements of the influence of our "big fleet" which show the unfriendly side of the adventure. One of these is the fact that the Argentine Congress has voted seventy-five million dollars to rebuild its fleet as soon as the disarmament treaty with Chile expires this spring. In this number appears also a remarkable address on "International Fraternity," recently delivered in Chicago by Charles E. Beals, Field Secretary of the American Peace Society, and a group of articles on the growth of navies with protests against the action of the United States in this regard. "Peace and the Churches" presents a possibility of a united movement by the nearly two hundred thousand American churches which would have incalculable influence upon public opinion.

The crest and crowning of all good,
Life's final star is Brotherhood;
For it will bring again to earth
Her long-lost poesy and mirth;
Will send new light on every face,
A kingly power upon the race;
And till it come we men are slaves,
And travel downward to the dust of graves!

—E. Markham.

THE NEW HAND BOOK OF SPECIAL COURSES.

It is very desirable that every C. L. S. C. reader should possess himself of the new Special Course hand book, which can be secured by writing to The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York. The four years' course is naturally the most popular of all the C. L. S. C. courses, but every Chautauquan will find it advantageous to have a clear idea of the opportunities for study represented by the special courses. Many C. L. S. C. members have leisure and like to employ it in particular lines of study. Graduates want to add seals to their diplomas and at the same time investigate further

some of the subjects suggested by the four years' course. Bible students are anxious for well organized arrangements for Bible study from a progressive point of view. Clubs outside of the C. L. S. C. constantly apply to Chautauqua for courses in history, art, or foreign travel. Let every member be posted upon this important side of the C. L. S. C. work. If there are clubs in your town send for extra copies of the hand book and see that each club leader is supplied. In the way you will help to extend the work of Chautauqua.

OUR COMING CLASSICAL YEAR.

A hint of the study plans for the coming C. L. S. C. Classical Year will make every reader eager to finish the Modern European Course in good time to be ready to enjoy the readings of 1909-10. It seems to be generally agreed that our study of "The Friendship of Nations" this year has given us a world outlook most important at the present time. Next year we shall take up another subject of absorbing interest, "Woman in the Progress of Civilization" which will form the leading series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The Reading Journey will conduct us through Egypt and our art study series cover Historic Types of Architecture from the Egyptian up to the Gothic. The required books will introduce us to the life of the classical world under most fortunate auspices. "The Greek View of Life" and "Social Life at Rome," will be still further illuminated by Homer's "Iliad" and "Odyssey" in a delightful English translation, and our science book, "The Friendly Stars," will show us that it is as simple a matter to know the stars as to know the residents of our own block. It will make us rather ashamed that we haven't taken the trouble, and very little trouble it is, to know our celestial neighbors. The "Topical Outline" for the year giving details, bibliographies, etc., has been mailed recently to every circle, so that arrangements can be made with local librarians to add to their libraries such books as may be desired. Any individual reader can also secure this outline upon application to the office of the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York.

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### 89's VICENNIAL.

If you are a member of Class of '89, be sure to let the Committee on the Vicennial know of your interest in the plans of the class. All members are urged to write letters of greeting to notify the secretary whether they expect to be able to attend the exercises or not. The class is planning for a great celebration of its twentieth anniversary in August. Address the secretary, Miss E. Louise Savage, 27 Rowley street, Rochester, New York.

### SPECIAL NOTICE.

See the offer below to all enrolled members of the C. L. S. C. for an original article on "The United States of the World."

## OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR JUNE.

#### FIRST WEEK.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Chapters XI, XII, and XIII. Internationalism as an Ideal for the Youth of America, The Literature of the Peace Movement, A Peace Perspective. "A Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land," Chapter IX. "Dutch Art and Artists," Chapter IX. The Nineteenth Century Painters of Landscapes and Marines.

### SUGGESTIONS FOR CLOSING PROGRAM OF THE YEAR.

Any one of the several different features of our year's work may be emphasized in a closing program. "The Friendship of Nations" series will of course be the inspiration of any International Peace Day celebrations, and many circles may like to make this the climax of the year's programs. One suggestion in addition to those already offered may be made a very interesting feature. Let every member of the Circle try to work out a scheme for a "United States of the World," showing as many interesting possibilities which would result from such a Federation as his imagination can conjure up. There is really a surprising number of enterprises for the good of the human race which might be expected to grow out of such conditions. The article by Mr. Charles Beals on "International Fraternity" in the *Advocate of Peace* for March is full of suggestions. See striking facts in April *World Today*, "What Our Navy Costs Us." The best one of the Circle papers could be read and one or more published in the local paper. It is worth while putting before people's minds interesting possibilities of peace instead of merely declaiming against the weaknesses of war. THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be glad to see these papers and to the reader who sends in the best paper embodying the largest number of practical ideas before June 1st a set of books for the coming year and a subscription to THE

CHAUTAUQUAN will be sent free of charge. This offer is not restricted to Circles. It is open to individual readers as well. The articles should contain over one thousand words, but not exceed two thousand. Send articles to THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Chautauqua, N. Y.

The Dutch features of the course lend themselves admirably to tableaux. The picturesque costumes can be copied without great expense and a series of living pictures from famous Dutch artists could be worked out which would make a charming evening's entertainment.

A local reader might be secured to give selected readings from some of the great masterpieces read during the year, or an illustrated lecture on Holland could be arranged to which friends could be invited. There are advantages in making the closing meeting attractive to outsiders who may thereby be won for new Chautauquans.

## REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JUNE READINGS.

### "THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS," CHAPTER II. INTERNATIONALISM AS AN IDEAL FOR THE YOUTH OF AMERICA.

1. What ideals have in the past stimulated the youth of America? 2. What two ideals at the present time make their appeal to the youth of every country? 3. How and why is the appeal of these two ideals felt in Russia and in America? 4. Show how applied science has outstripped applied friendship. 5. Why does the peace ideal seem insufficient as a motive force? 6. What is the American political idea? 7. How may this be applied to the world at large? 8. What was the effect of the French Revolution upon the rest of Europe? 9. How may the colleges of America help to bring about world federation? 10. Why are they peculiarly fitted to do this?

### CHAPTER 12. THE LITERATURE OF THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

1. What does the Bishop of Hereford regard as the contribution of the United States to the peace movement? 2. What important addresses on Internationalism were given by Charles Sumner? 3. What contributions to the peace cause were made by Channing? 4. What later men have been conspicuous in their condemnation of the war spirit? 5. Show the religious origin of the peace movement. 6. What famous book was called out by the Boer War and what story illustrates the barbarity of European war in the nineteenth century? 7. What was Kant's view of the coming of universal peace? 8. Show how men of six different nations through a period of six centuries have been planning for universal peace. 9. What claim to real greatness has William Ladd? 10. What important English books in recent years have considered international questions from the economic standpoint? 11. What was the character of Jean de Bloch's great work? 12. What parallel may be traced between the anti-slavery movement and the peace cause? 13. What striking facts are brought out in Bridgman's "World Organization?" 19. What two International Peace Congresses have met in this country? 20. What may be said of the National Congress in New York in 1907? 21. Show the value of the Lake Mohonk conferences. 22. What is the Association for International Conciliation?

### CHAPTER 13. A PEACE PERSPECTIVE.

1. What was the origin of the "Old and New?" 2. Show how

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the cause of war gains from being organized. 3. Tell Dr. Hale's story of the "Mere Idealists." 4. How does the civil war appear as we look back upon it? 5. Illustrate the oneness of the world. 6. Describe the International Congress of American States and its results. 7. What effect had this upon the idea of a permanent tribunal? 8. What influence was exerted by the Lake Mohonk Conferences? 9. How did the permanent tribunal finally come about?

A READING JOURNEY THROUGH THE HOLLOW-LAND. PART IX.

1. What are the chief objects of interest at The Hague? 2. What historic events are associated with the "House in the Wood?" 3. Note some of the attractions of this palace. 4. What may be said of the character of the Queen and her relations with her people? 5. Describe a day in the life of the upper classes. 6. What is a typical Dutch menu? 7. What customs are indicated by the "Aanspreker" and the "Klopper?" What are some features of a Dutch church service? 9. Describe a Dutch farm house of the best sort.

DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS. CHAPTER IX. THE NINETEENTH CENTURY PAINTERS OF LANDSCAPES AND MARINES.

1. Who were the four pioneers of modern Dutch painting, and in what field is each eminent? 2. What woman artist takes high rank? 3. In what respect did the work of Jongkind show a unique quality? 4. How did he rank with other artists of his time? 5. What title has been bestowed upon Roelofs? 6. What is his theory of landscape painting? 7. How did his admiration for Troyon affect his work? 8. What influence had his stay in Belgium upon him? 9. What relation can be traced between the Barbizon School and the Modern Dutch painters? 10. What English painter influenced the Barbizon group? 11. In what respect had the latter gone beyond the seventeenth century Dutchmen? 12. What characteristics are very pronounced in the work of Weissenbruch? 13. How does it compare with that of Mesdag? 14. What difference is noticeable between the methods of Troyon and of Mauve in the treatment of animals? 15. In what other respects did Mauve show his originality? 16. Who are some of the less famous but admirable painters of this modern landscape group? 17. What is known of the life and work of Matthew Maris? 18. Describe the art of William Maris. 19. What is true of the cloud effects produced by James Maris? 20. Compare his art with that of Mauve and Israels. 21. Describe the difference in technique between the seventeenth century and nineteenth century painters of atmosphere and light. 22. In what other respects do the nineteenth century painters exhibit the modern spirit?

## SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who was Charles Sumner? 2. Who was Channing? 3. With what famous struggle in England is Cobden associated? 4. What official positions has John W. Foster held? 5. What present-day king has been called "a king among diplomats, and a diplomat among kings?"

1. Where is the residence of the Dutch Court in summer?

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2. In what church did the Dutch people place a beautiful stained glass window to commemorate the Queen's coronation? 3. What historic figures appear in the design of this window? 4. What is the Binnenhof? 5. Of what two dark tragedies was the Binnenhof witness? 6. How do the names of the streets of The Hague suggest the history of the country?

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS.

1. In 1889 by William Randall Cremer and Frederic Passy. 2. Locksley Hall, Tennyson. 3. Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Chili, Argentine, Uruguay, Paraguay, Bolivia, Brazil, Panama, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaraugua, Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, and Cuba.

1. Wheat, Indian corn, raw materials, petroleum and margarin. 2. Sugar, tin foil, herring, and earthenware. 3. A family of Dutch printers who established presses at Amsterdam, Leyden and elsewhere. They were celebrated for the accuracy and beauty of their typography. They published excellent editions of many of the classic authors, the Greek New Testament, etc., in all fully 1,600 works. 4. The law which determines the path of a ray of light in passing from one medium to another. 5. The Fifth Dutch Governor of New Netherlands, 1634-47.

## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

Several works of art by modern Dutch masters had been hung on the walls of the room where the members of the Round Table gathered. "The pictures," explained Pendragon, "have been loaned by one of our members who could not be present to-day, but sent them to take her place. She and her husband have followed the art series together all the year with great enjoyment and bought the pictures to celebrate, as she said, an epoch in their lives."

"I've made a discovery in connection with this art study," said a reader from Illinois. "It's what one of my friends calls the 'picture shop habit.' I've always enjoyed looking in the picture shop windows, but never thought of going inside. My business requires much traveling and I often have spare time. This year I've hunted up the local picture gallery wherever I could find one and examined the Dutch paintings. In one town where there was no gallery they sent me to a local picture dealer who I found had a hobby for Dutch pictures. He showed me some very interesting things and I spent a delightful hour. In the very large cities most of the picture dealers have private galleries and very often small exhibitions of the works of a single artist and they can usually tell me what other exhibitions are open. I never before realized what an increasing source of pleasure the study of pictures could become. My family take a great interest in these investigations and when I get home almost the first question they ask is about my picture adventures."

"It seems to be the old story of literature and life," commented

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a graduate member. "Chautauqua woke me up to its value twenty years ago. Whenever I practise it I'm conscious of growing and when I get lazy and don't think about what I read or try to use it in some way I have a sense of dropping behind."

"We are glad to have to-day," said Pendragon, "the report of the Cincinnati S. H. G. reunion which was held too late to be heard from at our last meeting. The president, Miss O'Connell, a member of the Pioneer Class of '82, will tell the story." "Our reunion was a grand success," responded the delegate. "We held it in 'The Alms and Doepke Tea Room' in Cincinnati at two o'clock in the afternoon. There were forty-nine present and the responses to the toasts were very felicitous. Here is our program:

"Chautauqua Experiences." Captain John A. Johnson, '85.

Recitation. Miss Nellie Allan.

"Bishop John H. Vincent's Achievement." Professor G. B. Bolenbaugh, '95.

"Utilized Moments" by an "outside Barbarian." Dr. G. M. Siewers.

"Advice from the Semi-civilized" by one of the number. Rev. Gervaise Roughton, Pastor Wesley Chapel.

"Inducements to Enter the Charmed Circle. A word to the Barbarians." Miss Anna L. Foerster, '99.

Recitation. Miss Nellie Allan.

"Mr. Lewis Miller and his work." Mrs. John D. Park, '84.

The graduate color, garnet, was much in evidence. Graduate badges had been drawn forth from their hiding places and were worn with enthusiasm, and the chairman of our banquet committee, Miss Wood, had provided red carnations in abundance. Among the speakers was one member, Miss Brown, who had been present at Chautauqua when the C. L. S. C. was organized thirty years ago. She was regarded much as if she were the heroine of a mythical past! One of the features of our reunion which made it so interesting was the fact that we had tried to reach all the graduates in the vicinity of Cincinnati. We secured the addresses from the office at Chautauqua and sent invitations. A number came who had never attended a graduate rally and they were delighted to meet other Chautauquans. It's a good way to make people feel how real the Chautauqua spirit is."

"I learn from various sources of new S. H. G.'s that are likely to be formed during the year," said Pendragon. "One of the most recent of these societies is that at Beloit, Kansas, where a summer Chautauqua is also held. The local circle has had a large membership for the past year and lately an S. H. G. has been formed. They are giving special attention o THE CHAUTAUQUAN series, holding four round tables during the year and making a study of some of Shakespeare's plays. The interest is reported as very strong. There are

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many more among the older graduate societies, Creighton, Pa.; Warren, Carrollton, New London, Ohio, and others, but from these we cannot have extended reports at this time."

"Quite a notable reunion has been held within the past few weeks by the Chautauqua Circle of Jersey Shore, Pennsylvania, which has been celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary," he continued, "and we are prepared to offer our congratulations."

"We have never formed an S. H. G.," said the delegate, "I suspect because our original circle has proved so congenial to a great number of our graduates. You can't think how impressive it was to have the history of our twenty-five years gathered up and set before us as was done at our reunion by Mrs. C. B. Seely, one of the founders of the circle. There was only a triangle the first year. Mrs. B. E. Staples at whose home we held our eventful reunion on the third of February was another and Miss Eva Gilday a well known teacher in Jersey Shore, the third. They had to fill all of the offices themselves that first year! But the circle rapidly widened after that. In all we have had one hundred and ten members, twenty-four of whom have graduated and we have held approximately nine hundred meetings. During these twenty-five years our Chautauqua households have had thirteen visits from the stork. We feel that those were fortunate little strangers who were born into a Chautauqua world. The C. L. S. C. is a matter of course to them. We varied our more serious studies which were pursued with zeal I assure you, with diversions of different sorts: social affairs, lectures, banquets, concerts, and picnics. Our one Christmas sleigh ride was a memorable event. We sang Chautauqua songs going and coming and Miss Gilday's epigrammatic response to roll call that night expressed our feelings exactly:

The Chautauqua Circle of Jersey Shore
Is composed of twelve members and not one more;
It is made up of beauty, intelligence, worth,
The cream of the place, the salt of the earth!

"We held public graduation exercises for some of the classes and anniversary banquets and one of our most cherished memories is Bishop Vincent's visit to Jersey Shore, his lecture and the delightful reception and talk from him afterwards. He also sent us a beautiful letter of greeting for our anniversary. You should have heard the toasts at our banquet. They were very bright and represented a large number of the classes from '85 to 1912. We all felt at the close of the evening that Chautauqua really meant more in our lives and in that of the community than we had ever fully appreciated."

"An interesting practical experiment has recently been tried by the members of the Circle at Moundsville, W. Va.," said Pendragon, as he unfolded a letter containing a number of clippings.

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"While they were studying 'The Short Story' in our 'Studies in European Literature' it was suggested that they try writing stories themselves and see if was as easy as it appeared! The president of the Circle has sent the enclosed clipping, for the editor of the Moundsville *Echo* is a member of the Circle, and printed all of the stories, hence the writers were able to see their 'efforts' in print. There were ten of these. You may like to look them over afterwards and speculate as to the personalities of the people who wrote them. They show considerable variety—romantic, psychological, humorous, etc. One, I learn is to appear in *The Sunday School Times,* possibly the incident from real life wherein a horse teaches the Sunday-school lesson. We have time for but one here, the 'Confessions of a Chautauquan,' a study in literary appreciation:

"'Once upon a time there was a woman to whom had been given the task of writing an original story by the next Monday evening. A whole week, thought she; surely half an hour is sufficient time in which to dash off a l'ttle gem, or maybe several, and then select the brightest..

"'When some days had passed she found a little time for the task and concluded to follow a favorite style of Maupassant and have the effect one of mystery. But somehow the story was slow in suggesting itself. "I'll try again," said she, "perhaps this is one of my off days which I understand all literary people experience."

"The Hawthornesque seemed attractive, but when wrestled with awhile, she reluctantly admitted a strange lack of streugth in style, description and psychological workings, and Poe was equally discouraging, for she could not remember her last nightmare. Meanwhile time was passing. "This thing is not so easy as it looks, but, happy thought, anything funny is always appreciated and if there is any humor lurking in my system I'll seize and drag it forth and make it face the light of day." Alas if there was ever any there it was not at home when she called.

"'Thinking perhaps that her peculiar style of literary genius would find best expression in character sketches, simple little stories touched with local color, etc., she attempted work on this line and soon changed her mind as she viewed the result. After many other efforts, like struggling to grasp something that was not there, vain strivings to take from the plenteous material all around (and simply record it as a readable story), she at last realized the truth of the old saying, "You can't get blood out of a turnip." Besides the time was up.'"

"Our Circle hasn't reported lately," said the delegate from the "Outlook" Circle of Mt. Vernon, New York, "but we have had a fine winter's work. Our Circle in spite of recent changes among us numbers thirty enthusiastic members. We follow the programs quite closely, but occasionally make detours into bypaths when interesting people come our way. Such an evening we had in January when a Hindu of the Brahmin caste, a graduate of Harvard, gave us a most interesting talk on India and her needs. At one of our February meetings we devoted the evening to the two musicians, three poets. two statesmen and one scientist, whose tooth

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anniversaries come this year. Our program committee who are appointed for one month make a record of the special work which each member contributes to the Circle program during the year. Our critic, Miss Babcock, keeps us on our mettle and our Press Correspondent, Miss Holder, keeps the public informed of our activities."

"Circles are fortunate who are able to invite specialists in this way," said Pendragon, "and a little forethought will often make such occasions possible. They give a reality to current events which impresses them upon us. This clipping from the Circle of Rowley, Mass.," he continued; "refers to a fine paper given by one of their members on 'The Physical Features and Plant Life of Our Foreign Possessions.' The Circle invited one of the Newburyport ministers to give them an address on 'St. Bernard of Clairvaux.' The Newburyport *News* in a brief editorial comments upon the intellectual influence exerted by the Rowley Chautauqua Circle and other literary clubs in that vicinity."

"You can hardly guess how we are working the Chautauqua idea," said a member from Brooklyn, somewhat apologetically, "but our field is as different from that in many smaller towns as can be imagined. We belong to the Brooklyn, New York, branch of the Naval Y. M. C. A. and our circle of twelve is really conducted not so much for the material in the books as for the purpose of giving our men experience in public speaking! Of course we are being educated in other respects also in spite of ourselves, but we want the Round Table to know how workable the course is in many ways. We have conferences every two weeks with speakers who talk for ten minutes on the subjects assigned them and then a general discussion by the whole circle of twelve members. We change officers, except the secretary, at every meeting, and have a standing committee of three elected once a year who arrange the conferences and assign the subjects."

The costume of the next speaker indicated her occupation. "I represent a circle of four," she said, "in the hospital of Baldwinsville, Massachusetts, two doctors and two trained nurses. We meet once a week to quiz each other and discuss the previous week's reading. We find these little talks very profitable and as one of our number was in Europe for five months quite recently, she recounts many interesting experiences which bear on the course. We have access to a number of books and magazines and pass them around as the chance offers."

"Don't leave New England without letting Barre, Vermont, report, please," said the next speaker. "We haven't done so for a long time. In fact we don't take the full course, but we're an old circle

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and we are studying THE CHAUTAUQUAN most diligently, eighteen of us. We're all housekeepers, doing our own sewing and mothering our families and trying to keep in touch with the outside world through THE CHAUTAUQUAN and its helps. The Holland trip and the Dutch art series are very fine. We are planning a Domestic Science afternoon soon and are to give it a Dutch character so far as we can. We often read aloud in the circle and find the course full of delightful material."

A member from Wilmar, Minnesota, emphasized particularly the pleasure they had found in the Art course. "We use the questions with each set of studies," she explained, "looking up specially interesting topics for additional information. We have the magazine *Masters in Art* dealing with the Dutch artists. Each member takes a magazine and gives a talk on one of the artists, passing it around for each one to see the pictures and after the club is through with it any member may borrow it to examine at her leisure. We all act in turn as critics and it is very seldom that anyone is absent or unprepared."

# The Esperanto Address-Book

The first yearly address-book of the members of the Esperanto Association of North America has just been issued by the Association, and is especially interesting since this is the first list of organized Esperantists that has ever been published in America.

The list includes only those Esperantists who have been actively enough interested in the promotion of the study and use of the international language to have their names inscribed upon the roll of the Association, by contributing the small membership fee of twenty-five cents which is asked of all persons interested in the Esperanto movement. Naturally, there are very many persons in the United States who have never even heard of the Association, although they appreciate the desirability and great usefulness of Esperanto, and wish it to become officially what it already is unofficially, the international language not only of the future but of the present. This fact is attested by the enormous number of Esperanto text-books and general literature handled by certain book firms dealing in Esperanto supplies during the past year, as well as by the significant fact that no one now-a-days asks "What is Esperanto, anyway?" although even a year ago people did not feel that such a question betrayed any great ignorance. At the present time everyone is sufficiently acquainted with the international language idea to understand what Esperanto is, whether he has studied the language at all or not.

The list of members in this address-list is arranged in the territorial divisions which have been made, and then in the clubs to which a majority of the members belong. Individual members are listed as such. The list is preceded by the names of the officers and the addresses of the headquarters of the Association (3981 Langley Ave., Chicago), and also by the Constitution of the Association, in parallel columns of Esperanto and English.

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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Issued Monthly with Illustrations

JUNE TO AUGUST 1909

Volume 55

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North American Conservation Conference at the White House—President Roosevelt, Mexican, Canadian, and United States Delegates

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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 55 JUNE, 1909. No. 1.

PRESIDENT TAFT, as we have had occasion to remark, entered upon his duties under exceptionally auspicious circumstances. He had no enemies; the so-called reactionaries in his party were as jubilant as the so-called radicals; the many who had enthusiastically approved the Roosevelt policies were as pleased as the few who had violently condemned them. It was seen at the very outset that President Taft would face a most difficult situation. The question was whether he would really continue the popular policies or suspend reformatory activity—give the country the "rest" which the anti-Rooseveltians demanded. Time alone could answer that question.

What is the testimony of the three months that have elapsed since Mr. Taft was inaugurated? In his inaugural he frankly stated that he could not and would not depart from the Roosevelt policies. In the same document he proposed a federal tax on inheritances as a proper means of increasing the government's revenue. Later he urged tariff revision in the spirit of the party platform. The subjects of additional railroad regulation, prevention of inflation in the capitalization of natural utilities and the reorganization of the interstate commerce commission President Taft has promised to treat in his first message to the regular session of the present Congress, and no one doubts that they will be treated in a progressive spirit.

Perhaps the greatest single problem of the Taft administration, and the one in which originality will be required, is that of financial reorganization. The need of new currency and banking legislation has been amply demon-

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strated; the panic of last fall is generally ascribed to the defects of the present currency laws; bankers, economists, and men of affairs agree as to the urgency of improvement; but, unfortunately, it has been impossible, so far, to reach any agreement as to the scope and nature of the reforms needful. The currency should be more "elastic," more responsive to the fluctuating requirements of trade, but how is this elasticity to be secured? What, further, should be done with the "greenbacks"—the government's unredeemed promises to pay coin—that are still outstanding? And what should be the relation between the currency and the government bonds? These are perplexing questions, and the Taft administration will greatly distinguish itself if it shall succeed in settling them. Secretary MacVeagh, a known "progressive" on the financial and revenue problems, will probably revert to the proposals of Secretary Gage of the McKinley administration, and Congress may be more favorably disposed toward "radical" currency ideas than it was ten years ago.

The new tariff, with which the Senate is wrestling at this writing, will owe some of its liberal features to the moral influence of the President and his cabinet, as well as to the anti-monopoly and "revisionist" sentiment of the great Middle West. The President has not attempted to fix schedules and rates; he has simply and effectively insisted on honest and independent handling of the subject, on due recognition of the interests of the consumers and the smaller producers. Public opinion, as reflected in votes of "insurgent" Republicans, anti-standpatters, has made a tariff bill that is much more liberal than certain special interests would have liked. The Senate, to be sure, is yet to determine certain features of the bill, but the President has intimated more than once that he would not sign a measure that merely pretended to offer relief without actually doing so. The story of the Wilson tariff, of the Cleveland era, the story of the bill which the President who signed denounced as a bill of perfidy and dishonor to the party responsible for it, is not to be repeated.

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In other respects the new administration has given even more striking proof of independence and liberalism. The policy toward the "solid South" is to be one of friendship and conciliation. The appointment of a Democrat—and of a Democrat who had not even supported the Taft ticket—to the War Secretaryship—because he represented the best citizenship of the South was a significant beginning. There are to be no appointments to office in that section that the majority of the educated and respectable citizens could regard as an affront or humiliation; at the same time every effort is to be made to help industry, morality and culture among the masses of the black population.

To organized labor the new administration has promised sympathetic consideration of all proper proposals in the shape of additional employer's liability and safety legislation, regulation of injunctions, etc. In short, there is to be no backward step; progressive and remedial legislation will be urged by President Taft as vigorously as it was urged by his predecessor. In the methods alone—these being dependent on personal and temperamental characteristics—there may be a pronounced change. We shall doubtless hear less about "personal government" the tendency to "executive usurpation," violations of the Constitution, and so on.



## The Frenzied Rivalry in Big-Navyism and the Peace of the World.

Two years ago even "practical" politicians entertained some hope with regard to the possibility of an international agreement limiting naval budgets and checking the ruinous rivalry of the European powers in the building of monster war ships. It was known that England had "informally" sounded Germany on the subject and had indicated her own willingness to come to some understanding. It was regarded as probable that the great Teutonic power would lend sympathetic ear to proposals looking to reductions in naval estimates. Recent developments, unhappily,

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have dashed all such hopes and expectations. The race for naval supremacy, the expenditures on big warships, will now be more "frenzied" than ever. It would be idle to attempt to fix responsibility; the fact is for the present the only thing of importance.

The agitation in Great Britain over the alleged imminent loss of her naval supremacy is a startling phenomenon. For many years England's policy has been to maintain a "two power standard" in her navy—that is, her naval strength has been supposed to be equal to that of her two leading neighbors—Germany and France. She relied on her navy for national security, and regarded it as unnecessary to build up a great standing army. This was called the "blue water" theory of national defence; the powerful navy rendered invasion utterly impossible, and a relatively small army was therefore sufficient. Last fall, however, the present premier, Mr. Asquith, announced that, to make assurance doubly sure, the government's policy would consist in maintaining a "two-power" standard plus ten per cent. This announcement called forth high praise from the opposition party and from all other political groups save those that believed in restricting armaments and promoting peace and security by treaties, agreements and international friendship,

But what is the situation today? The British government is condemned by the opposition for an "unpatriotic" and perverse blindness; it is accused of culpable neglect, cheerful ignorance and indifference to grave danger. The government itself, while indignantly repudiating the charges of the Tory leaders, admits that it had been "misled" by German representations and official reports, that England is not as safe as she ought to be, and that certain emergency measures must soon be taken to insure the maintenance of her naval strength. She must proceed to build more ships of the latest type—the *Dreadnought* type, and the only question is how many such ships she must build this year, and next, and the year after, and so on. All agree that the answer to this question lies with Ger-

many, who is said to have "accelerated" her official program and to have, furthermore, preserved a certain secrecy about her naval plans. The alarmists in England assert that, if eight *Dreadnoughts* are not immediately ordered, the margin of British naval superiority will be wiped out in a year or two. The government ridicules these gloomy predictions. Perhaps the most trustworthy figures are those given by the *Naval Annual* in the following list of the best and most modern ships built, ordered or provided for by law in England and Germany:

| | Britain. | | | Germany. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Dreadnoughts. | Invincibles. | Total. | Nassaus. | F. G. H. etc. | Total. |
| 1909 (end) | 4 | 3 | 7 | 3 | — | 3 |
| 1910 (to be completed) | 3 | — | 3 | 4 | 2 | 6 |
| 1910 (end) | 7 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 2 | 9 |
| 1911 (to be completed) | 5 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| 1911 (end) | 12 | 4 | 16 | 10 | 3 | 13 |
| 1912 (to be completed) | 4 | — | 4 | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| 1912 (end) | 16 | 4 | 20 | 13 | 4 | 17 |

These figures, it is agreed by the moderates, show that even on a one-power standard England is, and will remain for several years, distinctly weak as regards the big-gun ships, and that the government's plan to construct four new *Dreadnoughts* at once is not sufficient. The supporters of the government meet this contention by pointing out that the British navy is strong in other ships, but apparently the "other ships" no longer count with the average naval specialist. All eyes are on the *Dreadnought* and *Invincible* types, and in a short time the less powerful ships will represent nothing but sheer waste. There is little doubt that the outcome of the agitation and "crisis" in England will be a two-power standard not only for the navy as a whole, but for the most up-to-date branch of the service. The Liberals will not long resist the demands of the press and the busi-

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ness elements, and these have of late exhibited a state of mind bordering on panic. There has been talk of "invasion" of England by Germany; a great standing army, with conscription if necessary, is demanded by many, and even the theater has been used as a means of "defence" propaganda. Whether well-grounded or not, the effect of such panics is invariably a substantial increase of the naval and military appropriations.

Yet no power wishes to disturb the peace of the world. All profess an earnest desire to avoid war, to foster arbitration and promote trade, industry, and civilization. Would not, then, an agreement to limit armaments and defence budgets be more rational as well as more economical? Must all the powers furiously prepare for war to maintain peace? Clearly, logic and reason do *not* govern the political world.

### Dangerous Diplomacy in Europe.

There is a vital, if not manifest, connection between the naval question just discussed and the general diplomatic situation in Europe. The Balkan problem never really involved the possibility of war, for, as has been repeatedly said in these pages, none of the powers wants war. Yet is is impossible to overlook the fact that the game of the "higher diplomacy" as it has been played in the last several months is a dangerous game. Servia would not have ventured to assume a position obnoxious to Austro-Hungary if she had not expected moral and national support from Russia, the "historic" protector of the small Slav nations in the near East. If Russia had not been weakened and financially all but exhausted in the war with Japan, she would have been forced by nationalist and Slavophil opinion to put herself behind little Servia and resist Austrian policy in the Balkans. Servia surrendered diplomatically when Russia, practically reversing herself, announced the recognition or acceptance, as an accomplished fact, of the annexation by Austria of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. How that recognition was secured is one of the secrets of the

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higher diplomacy, but rumor says that Germany imperatively demanded that action of Russia. A refusal would have meant mobilization of the German army, it is added. Why should Germany so vigorously back up Austria? Not, assuredly, because she is her ally, for the Triple Alliance imposes no such obligations on the contracting parties. It is conjectured by competent writers that Germany, if it be true that she exerted pressure in behalf of Austria, did so for a deeper and ulterior purpose. She wished to take advantage of the Balkan crisis to assert her might to counteract previous diplomatic efforts of Russia, France, and England—especially the last named power.

It is to be borne in mind that Europe is now divided into two rival combinations. On the one hand there is the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy. It is true that Italy's devotion to the Alliance has been seriously questioned by Germany herself, but passively and diplomatically the Italian government has supported the Vienna cabinet during the protracted negotiations over the Balkan situation. On the other hand, England, France, and Russia have stood and worked together during the same period, and they have been described as the Triple Entente. France is Russia's formal ally, but England's relations with Russia have but lately assumed a neighborly and amicable character, and there is a great difference between a friendly understanding and an actual alliance. At any rate, England's diplomatic moves in recent years have been regarded as tending to isolate Germany and to undermine her military position. The Berlin government had no grievance that could be formulated in words, but there was much unrest in Germany, and the distrust of England constantly grew deeper and more acute. Even ardent champions of peace and international amity felt that there was peril in the diplomatic situation. Frederic Harrison, the leader of the English Positivist School, and opponent of imperialist policies, a radical social reformer, wrote that between England and Germany there was gradually developing a conflict as irrepressible as was that between Rome and Carthage. Sir E.

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Grey, the foreign minister of Great Britain, said in Parliament that an attempt to isolate Germany would lead to a great war in Europe. He deemed, however, that such an attempt had been or was being made by his country, and proceeded to declare that another "extreme thing" in diplomacy was also calculated to produce a conflict—that thing being an attempt of any power to dictate the policy of the European Continent. Here the allusion was clearly to Germany, for no other power dreams of acquiring dictatorial influence on the continent of Europe. Germany, in turn, denies that she is ambitious enough to dictate to or control the continent, but her denials and explanations are naturally received with much reserve.

Reverting to the Balkan "game," it is generally agreed that the Triple Alliance scored a remarkable victory over the Triple Entente. The latter combination had favored a conference to decide the problems in the near East, and had opposed recognition of Austria's annexation of the Turkish provinces in advance of such a conference. The Triple Alliance—Germany in other words—succeeded in securing the recognition of the annexation, thus, it is said, humiliating not only Russia, the special friend of the Balkan Slavs, but also France and England. Did Germany deliberately intend to inflict such humiliation on the powers named? Did she seize upon an opportunity to demonstrate her strength; did she back Austria, or even inspire and instigate the Vienna diplomatic moves, in order to undo the work which she supposes England has been doing in arriving at understandings with France and Russia, in aiding France in Morocco, in regaining prestige in Turkey?

Whatever opinions may be formed on these topics, the "higher diplomacy" is full of peril. The conflict that no power wishes may be precipitated in spite of the best intentions, by one blunder or indiscretion. Meantime, though peace is preserved, the mutual jealousies and suspicions spell appalling burdens and swelling expenditures on armies and navies.

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## Parliamentarism in Persia and Turkey

Those who think that parliamentary institutions can prosper only in the West, and who have doubted the success of the revolutionary movements in Persia, Turkey, China, and India, may find no little justification for their skepticism in recent events. The extraordinary and sudden change in Persia which so astonished the world some two years ago, has not, unfortunately, proved lasting. Civil war has raged in the empire for many months, and, in spite of various local victories, of the Nationalist and reformatory forces at Tabriz, Bundan, Abhar, Lingah, and Bushire, the triumph of the Shah's troops is by no means improbable. And that, failing the intervention of the Powers chiefly concerned, Russia and England, not only means the establishment of a corrupt tyranny but the danger of massacre. The supporters of the perfidious Shah, who dispersed the first Parliament by force and who has repeatedly broken the most solemn promises to order new elections and abide by the constitution, as treacherous as their master, hate the Christians for their moral support of the revolution, and would joyfully wreak vengeance upon them. There is no loyalty to the throne in Persia, according to the best observers, and no genuine patriotism among his followers. High posts are offered to the highest bidders; the provincial governors "make" what they can out of the revenue and taxes. A worse system it is hardly possible to imagine, and the primary need of Persia is administrative honesty, with an independent judiciary. For this the revolutionary elements have been fighting desperately, but it seems that they cannot win without the aid of the Powers.

Russia and England have an "understanding" with regard to Persia. It relates, however, only to the division of the country into spheres of influence and to measures for preventing aggression or interference by a third power. Neither Russia nor England has seen fit to make any suggestion to the Shah in regard to the summoning of another parliament, though both recognize the danger to which alike

natives and foreigners are exposed while anarchy and internecine strife prevail in the empire. English liberals charge that the understanding with Russia is responsible for the passive attitude of their government in relation to Persia, since Russia is naturally supposed to be hostile to a free or constitutional regime in a neighboring country. It is a fact, moreover, that a Russian colonel, with a band of Cossacks, has helped the Shah's troops under the pretext of suppressing disorder and enforcing law and justice. Still, British influence has not been without weight in inducing Russia to favor honesty in Persian administration and the eradication of the flagrant official abuses. Whether Persia will return to constitutional government is, however, an open question. The merchants, the priests, and the educated elements generally are ready for such a permanent reform, but the masses are apparently indifferent and ignorant.

In Turkey, there is every reason to hope, constitutional government is actually an accomplished fact. Parliament does not seem to have exhibited much efficiency; there is talk of cutting down the Sultan's income and putting an end to appalling waste and "graft;" there is talk of judicial, financial and military reforms. Inter-group friction, rivalries and mutual suspicions have, however, prevented the pursuit of any constructive policy, and in every direction there is a painful lack of practical achievement. The new grand vizier, Hilmi Pasha, has already disappointed many sincere reformers, while on the side of the reactionaries there are signs of regained confidence and increased agitation. Fear alone is supposed to keep the Sultan "loyal" to his oath to abide by the constitution, and that fear would vanish if the army should turn anti-constitutionalist. The masses in Turkey, as in Persia, are neutral and ignorant; hence reform depends almost wholly on the army officers and the intelligent minority. This is not a healthy condition of affairs, yet, as already stated, constitutionalism is not considered to be in serious peril in the Ottoman empire. The peaceful settlement of the foreign questions should entail visible and palpable progress in internal affairs. Parlia-

mentary institutions grow slowly, even in the West. In Russia the Douma is still a negligible quantity, and in France there is strong dissatisfaction with the Republican form of government. A revolution is predicted in the conservative press, though what the workmen and peasants would gain by a restoration of an imperial or monarchial government has not been pointed out.

Note:—Since the above was written, the Sultan has been deposed and his younger brother, believed to be more liberal, made ruler in his stead.



## Wage Fixing by the State—To End Sweating.

Only Socialists of various schools contend that the state has the right to prescribe a minimum or "living" wage in private industry. Compulsory arbitration involves, as an incident to strike prevention, the regulation of wages, but it is a new departure for the state to say that no industry shall live if it cannot pay a certain fixed "living wage." Such a departure is found in a bill introduced by the British government in the Commons as a part of its program of social reform. Private bills of the same character have been before Parliament, so that the proposal is not unfamiliar. Still, without the direct sanction and initiative of the government no measure of so radical a nature could obtain a majority.

Briefly, the object of the bill is to abolish "sweating" in certain industries that have been called "parasitic" and that employ women and children chiefly. It is expressly limited—for only the worst of the sweated industries are to be reached at this time—to cardboard box-making, ready-made and wholesale tailoring, ready-made blouse trade and machine-made lace and net-finishing.

The bill provides for the establishment of trade boards for these respective industries, and these boards will be empowered:

1. To fix a minimum standard of wage, and to enforce that minimum when fixed.
2. To act as centers of information and organization; and
3. To nourish and cherish the interest of the workers, and to foster a healthy state of industry within the particular trade in which they operate.

Each Trade Board will be composed of persons elected (or nominated in certain cases) to represent employers and work-people in equal numbers, together with three salaried official members. In

trades where women are largely employed one at least of the official members must be a woman.

Trade Boards will act through District Committees, composed of representatives of employers and workers, and official members of the Central Boards. The District Committee will fix minimum time and piece rates, to be submitted to the Trade Board, and the moment that Board prescribes the rates they

1. Become obligatory on Government and municipal contractors; and

2. Are recoverable as a civil debt in the absence of a written contract to the contrary.

If these means are not sufficient to bring about the desired end, the bill provides that:

"At any time, not less than six months after the minimum rates have been prescribed the Board of Trade may, on the application of the Trade Board, make an order making these rates obligatory by law upon all persons."

For the rest, the bill applies to factory as well as to home workers, and gives full powers of enforcement not only by the investigation of complaints, but by inspection and detection. Powers are granted which authorize official entry into factories and workshops, and the attendance at all places where work is given out, at all reasonable and suitable times.

This radical measure is criticised only by those who believe that the wage-workers in the affected industries will be injured rather than benefited by its provisions. It is said that the direct effect of the minimum wage will be to invite foreign competition—that is, to encourage imports from Germany, Austria and other countries that do not regulate wages—and thus to diminish employment in England. Would not, it is asked, the last state of the poorest laborers be worse than their first? Is not a low wage better than none at all, than starvation and pauperism? The British protectionist, not unnaturally, point out that the minimum wage only adds another argument in favor of a tariff on foreign goods, as a tariff would make the wage regulation effective instead of nominal or illusory. This phase of the question is sure to be warmly debated in connection with the larger political issues which divide the parties in Great Britain.

### Shall Public Servants Organize as Unions?

The recent strike of telegraph, telephone, and postoffice employes in France has emphasized a question that not infrequently arises in this country, as well as in Austria, England and elsewhere. Shall state employes, servants of the

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public, be allowed to form "trade unions," demand official regulation and enforce demands by means of strikes and threats of strikes?

Of course, even public employes, including teachers, may have real grievances. But, while the state or the city is not always a just or liberal employer, a public servant everywhere occupies a privileged position in a sense. His tenure is secure; his pay is fixed by law; he generally looks forward to retirement on a pension after a certain term of service. Should not these advantages carry with them the renouncement of the right to strike and disturb the public service? And if so, should not public servants be prohibited from organizing such unions as are likely to resort to strikes and similar methods?

In France, for example, the employes who struck completely paralyzed the mail and telegraph services, causing not mere financial loss and hardship, but danger to the state, for at that time the Balkan situation was considered to be highly critical and menacing, and the government needed particularly to be in touch with the other centers of Europe. The strikers had serious grievances; they had sought to obtain redress by appeal, negotiation, and petition, and had failed; they had waited for fifteen months for official action and had made no progress whatever. They wanted higher pay, a revision of the system of promotion, and the dismissal of an under-secretary whom they charged with tyranny, inefficiency, and favoritism. Still, the public was not prepared for a general strike—any more than the cabinet was—and only a measure of sympathy with the employes prevented an outburst of indignation and wrath. The strike was settled by concessions on both sides, but the Chamber of Deputies adopted by an overwhelming vote a resolution against strikes or trades-union methods, on the part of public or state employes, and the country at large undoubtedly indorsed that position. Organized labor, however, refuses to recognize any distinction between state and corporate employes, and the socialists in Parliament share labor's sentiments. An act regulating the privileges of state

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employes as regards organization has been prepared by the government, but it is utterly unsatisfactory to the employes and their co-workers in private industry. A conflict is imminent, for even the present "radical" ministry will not concede the right to strike or to threaten to public servants.

In this country the same question has in milder and different forms presented itself in Chicago (where the public teachers have organized a "trade union" and sent delegates to the central labor federation), in San Francisco and other cities, where postal employes have attempted to affiliate with the National Federation of Labor.

### A National Theater as a Shakespeare Memorial.

There is to be a national theater in England, and it is to serve primarily as a memorial to Shakespeare. It is hoped that the memorial will be completed in 1916—the tercentenary of Shakespeare's death, and an appeal for contributions, large and small, will shortly be made to all English speaking peoples.

The project is not new, but when it was first broached, some five years ago, opposition appeared from several directions. There were those who thought that the idea of a Shakespeare memorial was preposterous in itself, because, in their view, the greatest of all poet-dramatists, needed no other monument than that embodied in his immortal works. There were others who entertained the idea with sympathy but who feared that a theater as a memorial would prove a fiasco. The obstacles in the way of a successful national theater in an English-speaking country were held to be insuperable. An architectural-sculptural monument was proposed as a more feasible alternative, and the artists of the whole Anglo-Saxon world were to be invited to prepare and submit plans for such a memorial. Finally the friends of the scheme appointed a committee to reach a decision and after much deliberation a report in favor of a statue was adopted. The advocates of a national theater then bestirred themselves and so energetically attacked the statue project

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that the two divisions of the army resolved to unite and restudy the whole undertaking. The outcome was a complete indorsement of the theater alternative. The critics of the memorial idea have not been silenced, but they constitute a small minority. The representatives of art, letters, society, education, and wealth in England are, with few exceptions, enlisted in the movement. The theater project has been considered from every point of view, and there appears to be no fear of failure, artistic or financial.

It is intended to make the theater a truly national institution, worthy of Shakespeare and worthy of the British people. The repertory will not be exclusively Shakesperean or Elizabethan or even classical. Modern plays will also be produced, as well as translated works. But there is to be no thought of "popularity" or of pecuniary returns; the theater is to be sufficiently endowed to be independent of the "box office" and to devote itself to the promotion of beauty and merit and high purpose in the drama.

It will be necessary to raise $2,500,000, of which $500,000 will probably be required for a suitable site, unless the London County Council provides a site as its contribution to the scheme. The cost of the building is of course uncertain, but a liberal sum will be set aside as an endowment fund, to meet annual deficits if any should occur. Already an anonymous doner has subscribed $3,500—an encouraging beginning. It is hoped, however, that many men and women of moderate means will come forward with contributions. The colonies and the United States will be invited to join the movement. Many problems of detail remain to be solved by the executive committee, but the ground has been thoroughly prepared and progress will henceforth be rapid, as the aid of specialists—players, critics, managers, etc.—is sought at every step.

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# Conservation Number of The Chautauquan

The Nation, like the careful banker and merchant, is "taking stock."

And the movement has been inaugurated none too soon if our prosperity is to go on unchecked and we are to hand over the country to our children in such condition that their prosperity and happiness be reasonably assured.

A generation of wasteful, careless, and greedy exploitation of natural resources must be followed by one of general economy. The drain upon our natural resources, our capital stock, during the last fifty years has been something enormous.

Great damage has been wrought; stupendous loss of National wealth has taken place. A change in methods must come. The day of our "inexhaustible natural resources" has vanished, and the feeling of supreme optimism has given way to one of anxiety and even of alarm on the part of far-seeing persons.

But as ever in the great crises that this country has faced, men are rising to grapple with the great problem of the time.

A year ago there was held at the White House a meeting regarded by many as second in importance only to one at which the Constitution of the United States was framed.

It was called by the President of the United States and attended by his Cabinet, the governors of the states, members of Congress, the supreme court, and leading citizens of the nation. The object of this notable gathering was to launch a nation wide movement to conserve our natural resources.



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From that meeting has sprung an organized propaganda looking to the coöperation of all our people in a patriotic endeavor to preserve the National wealth through wise and reasonable use.

Already the conservation movement has the hearty endorsement of those public men who read most clearly the trend of the times. But the success of this vital undertaking lies with the mass of the people themselves. Its principles must be applied to their business and living methods if the national prosperity is to continue uninterrupted.

Otherwise the United States must face conditions that have impoverished nations in the past.

Realizing the importance of this work THE CHAUTAUQUAN devotes practically this entire annual civic number to setting before its readers the need of the Conservation Movement, its inception, its work thus far, and the plans for the future. This special number will be doubly interesting to C. L. S. C. readers who have just finished Professor Shaler's "Conservation" book in the course entitled "Man and the Earth."

There is an extraordinary amount of valuable information contained in the following pages nowhere else collected or published in available form. It is reprinted in part or verbatim from government reports and the records of the National Conservation Commission, and forms to date the most complete publication on this great work.

Unusual assistance was given in the preparation of this material by the officials of the United States Forest Service, the Reclamation Service, the United States Geological Survey, and the National Conservation Commission through its secretary, Mr. Thomas R. Shipp. The illustrations in

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this number are largely from photographs furnished by the organizations mentioned.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN urges careful reading of this matter, and commends the Conservation Movement to its readers.

It is, indeed, when one stops to think of it, the greatest economic movement ever organized by any age or nation and every citizen will help himself, as well as aid in assuring the stability and glory of his country, by understanding and supporting the efforts of the National Conservation Commission.

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# Origin and Plan of the Conservation Movement

## As Outlined in the Proceedings of the Conference of Governors of the Various States

THE idea of conserving the Nation's resources arose partly from the recent forestry movement, partly from the still more recent waterway movement.

The germ of the idea took form in an address by President Roosevelt before the Society of American Foresters (of which he was and is an associate member), March 26, 1903. In expressions indicating perhaps more clearly than any of earlier date the interdependence of our resources, he said to the forest students:

Your attention must be directed to the preservation of the forests, not as an end in itself, but as a means of preserving the prosperity of the Nation. * * * In the arid region of the West agriculture depends first of all upon the available water supply. In such a region forest protection alone can maintain the stream-flow necessary for irrigation and can prevent the great and destructive floods so ruinous to communities farther down the same streams. * * * The relation between forests and the whole mineral industry is an extremely intimate one. The very existence of lumbering * * * depends upon the success of our work as a nation in putting practical forestry into effective operation. As it is with mining and lumbering, so it is in only a less degree with transportation, manufactures, and commerce in general. The relations of all the industries to forestry is of the most intimate and dependent kind.

With continued development of the forest policy the interdependence of woodlands and waterways yearly becomes more evident; and it also becomes increasingly clear that both woods and waters are in their industrial aspects closely related not only to mineral production and the reclamation of arid lands, but to all agriculture and to transportation.

The next formal expression appeared when the President, in response to petitions of the people of the interior,

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appointed the Inland Waterways Commission. In the letter creating the Commission he declared:

It is becoming clear that our streams should be considered and conserved as great natural resources. * * * The time has come for merging local projects and uses of the inland waters in a comprehensive plan designed for the benefit of the entire country. * * * It is not possible to frame so large a plan without taking account of the orderly development of the natural resources. Therefore, I ask that the Inland Waterways Commission shall consider the relations of the streams to the use of all the great permanent natural resources and their conservation for the making and maintenance of prosperous homes.

While the foregoing expressions indicated both the relations among the Nation's resources and the need for a wider utilization of them, they did little more than forecast a national duty. Conservation as a single problem and as a basis for National policy was outlined still more clearly in the President's address before the National Editorial Association in Jamestown, June 10, 1907, the tenor of which appears in the following passages:

In utilizing and conserving the natural resources of the nation the one characteristic more essential than any other is foresight. No other nation enjoys so wonderful a measure of present prosperity, which can of right be treated as an earnest of future success, and for no other are the rewards of foresight so great, so certain, and so easily foretold. Yet hitherto as a nation we have tended to live with an eye single to the present, and have permitted the reckless waste and destruction of much of our national wealth.

The conservation of our natural resources and their proper use constitute the fundamental problem which underlies almost every other problem of our national life. Unless we maintain an adequate material basis for our civilization, we cannot maintain the institutions in which we take so great and so just a pride; and to waste and destroy our natural resources means to undermine these material bases.

So much for what we are trying to do in utilizing our public lands for the public; in securing the use of the water, the forage, the coal, and the timber for the public. In all four movements my chief adviser, and the man first to suggest to me the courses which have actually proved so bene-

ficial was Mr. Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the National Forest Service. Mr. Pinchot also suggested to me a movement supplementary to all of these movements, one which will itself lead the way in the general movement which he represents and with which he is actively identified, for the conservation of all our natural resources. This was the appointment of the Inland Waterways Commission.

### Conference Decided Upon

On May 14-23, 1907, the Inland Waterways Commission, while engaged in an inspection trip along the lower Mississippi at high water stage, repeatedly discussed the policy of conservation in its bearing on the general plans for waterway improvement toward which they were at work; and at their fifteenth session on May 21 (aboard the steamer *Mississippi*) it was decided—subject to approval by the President—to hold a conference or convention in Washington during the ensuing winter to discuss the conservation of the nation's resources. Chairman Burton was formally authorized to issue to the press a brief statement framed by Vice-Chairman Newlands, and the chairman and Commissioner Pinchot were made a committee to convey the matter "to the President as an expression of the view of the commission, leaving him to decide how the call shall issue." Soon afterward this committee conferred informally with the President, and received his sanction for arranging such a meeting.

During ensuing months Commissioners Newlands, Pinchot, Newell, and McGee met on the Pacific Coast, partly for the purpose of examining waterways and partly to consider and arrange details of the proposed assembly. Just before the opening of the fifteenth session of the National Irrigation Congress at Sacramento early in September, 1907, a preliminary draft or program was put in writing and sent to Chairman Burton. This draft corresponded closely in topics, speakers, and other details with the calendar subsequently adopted, except that up to this time the conference was designed primarily as one of experts rather than one of statesmen.

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### Governors Interested

At Sacramento it was learned by one of the commissioners present that the Lakes-to-Gulf Deep Waterway Association, then arranging for their Memphis convention, expected to bring together a score or more of State executives; and the suggestion was offered that, if five Governors attending the Irrigation Congress should approve, it might be well to invite the State executives of the entire country to take part in the proposed conference in Washington. Senator Newlands, as vice-chairman of the commission, at once acted on the suggestion by inviting Governors Gillette, Chamberlain, Mead, Cutler, and Kibbey to meet the four commissioners present and discuss the matter. All accepted except Governor Gillette, who had a conflicting engagement but signified general approval. At the meeting the idea of conservation in its relation to waterway improvement was outlined, together with the plan for the conference so far as developed, and in the course of discussion the further idea was brought out that more clearly than before the State Governor is of necessity the chief sponsor for the welfare of his commonwealth. As soon as suggested, this idea modified the plan for the meeting, and led to the decision that it should be primarily a conference of Governors, and only secondarily a meeting of experts able authoritatively to convey information both to the Governors and the commission. The four Governors present signified full approval of the plan and the determination to take part in the conference, Governor Chamberlain observing that he had already contemplated and even suggested meetings of Governors for the discussion of interstate questions.

The outcome of the Sacramento meeting and the progress in the preparations for plans for the conference were informally communicated to the President, and in the draft of his Memphis address before the Lake-to-Gulf Deep Waterway Association, prepared in advance for the press, he incorporated the announcement that the Inland Waterways Commission would, with his full approval, call a con-

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ference of Governors and experts on the conservation of natural resources, to be held in Washington early in the ensuing winter. The announcement in this form was extensively published immediately after the delivery of the address on October 4.

### Conference is Called

Meantime the commission was again engaged in an inspection trip down the Mississippi from St. Paul to Memphis at the low water stage, in which the President took part October 1 to 4, passing from Keokuk to Memphis amid an ovation unparalleled in the history of the interior. At the twenty-third session of the commission on October 3, presided over by the President, it was decided to make the arrangements for the conference a matter of record through a formal letter. This letter was drafted later in the day; and out of consideration for the score of Governors who were assembled on a neighboring vessel as guests of the Business Men's League of St. Louis, the commissioners met them on board their vessel and invited them to join in the request to the President that he authorize and formally announce the conference. Through a natural delicacy, several of the Governors expressed the feeling that it would be better for the plan to originate wholly with the commission; and accordingly on the morning of October 4, the following written communication was conveyed to the President:

October 3, 1907.

The PRESIDENT:

On board the U. S. Ship *Mississippi*.

SIR:—In the course of inquiries made under your direction "that the Inland Waterways Commission shall consider the relations of the streams to the use of all the great permanent natural resources and their conservation for the making and maintenance of prosperous homes," the members of the commission have been led to feel that it would be desirable to hold a conference on the general subject of the conservation of the natural resources of the nation.

Among the reasons for such a conference are the following:

1. Hitherto our national policy had been one of almost

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unrestricted disposal of natural resources, and this in more lavish measure than in any other nation in the world's history; and this policy of the Federal Government has been shared by the constituent States. Three consequences have ensued: first, unprecedented consumption of natural resources; second, exhaustion of these resources, to the extent that a large part of our available public lands have passed into great estates or corporate interests, our forests are so far depleted as to multiply the cost of forest products, and our supplies of coal and iron ore are so far reduced as to enhance prices; and third, unequaled opportunity for private monopoly, to the extent that both the Federal and the State sovereignties have been compelled to enact laws for the protection of the people.

2. We are of the opinion that the time has come for considering the policy of conserving these material resources on which the permanent prosperity of our country and the equal opportunity of all our people must depend; we are also of the opinion that the policy of conservation is so marked an advance on that policy adopted at the outset of our national career as to demand the consideration of both Federal and State sponsors for the welfare of the people.

3. We are of the opinion that the conference may best be held in the national capital next winter, and that the conferees should comprise the Governors of all our States and Territories, a limited number of delegates to be appointed by each Governor, and representatives from leading organizations of both State and National scope engaged in dealing with national resources or with practical questions relating thereto.

We have the honor to ask that in case you concur in our view you call such a conference.

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed) THEODORE E. BURTON.

W. J. MCGEE, Secretary.

On receiving the communication the President not only approved of the plan, but decided to comply fully with the formal request of the commission and himself call the conference; and he so announced in his Memphis address delivered later in the day, as follows:

As I have said elsewhere, the conservation of natural resources is the fundamental problem. To solve it the whole nation must undertake the task through their organizations

Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the United States Forest Service, who first suggested the Conservation Conference.
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White House Conservation Conference—The President, Governors of the States, Cabinet Officers, Supreme Court, Members of Congress, and Specially Invited Guests.
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and associations, and through the men whom they have made specially responsible for the welfare of the several States, and finally through Congress and the Executive. As a preliminary step the Inland Waterways Commission has asked me to call a conference on the conservation of natural resources, including, of course, the streams, to meet in Washington during the coming winter. I shall accordingly call such a conference. It ought to be among the most important gatherings in our history, for none have had a more vital question to consider.

### Committee Appointed

At the twenty-fifth session of the commission, convened on October 5, a conference committee was appointed "to confer with the President and take requisite action in conformity with his wishes" regarding arrangements; the committee comprised Commissioners Pinchot (chairman), Howell, and McGee. About this time it was decided, at the instance of Commissioner Newell, to recommend to the President that the conference be held in the East Room of the White House; and the recommendation was promptly approved. This conference committee kept in communication with the President, and reported progress at several sessions of the commission.

In November the President wrote each Governor, inviting him to take part in the conference; one of the letters being as follows:

My Dear Governor:—The natural resources of the United States were, at the time of the settlement, richer, more varied, and more available than those of any other equal area on the earth. The development of these resources has given us for more than a century a rate of increase of population and wealth without parallel in history. It is obvious that the prosperity which we now enjoy rests directly upon these resources. It is equally obvious that the vigor and success which we desire and foresee for this nation in the future must have this as its ultimate material basis.

In view of these evident facts, it seems to be time for the country to take account of its natural resources and to inquire how long they are likely to last. We are prosperous now; we should not forget that it will be just as important to our descendants to be prosperous in their time.

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Recently I declared there is no other question now before the nation of equal gravity with the question of the conservation of our resources, and I added that it is the plain duty of us who, for the moment, are responsible, to take inventory of the natural resources which have been handed down to us, to forecast the needs of the future, and so handle the great sources of our prosperity as not to destroy in advance all hope of the prosperity of our descendants.

It is evident that the abundant natural resources on which the welfare of this nation rests, are becoming depleted, and, in not a few cases, are already exhausted. This is true of all portions of the United States; it is especially true of the longer settled communities of the East.

The gravity of the situation must, I believe, appeal with special force to the Governors of States, because of their close relations with the people and the responsibility for the welfare of their communities. I have therefore decided, in accordance with the suggestion of the Inland Waterways Commission, to ask the Governors of the States and Territories to meet at the White House on May 13, 14, and 15 to confer with the President and with each other on the conservation of natural resources.

It gives me great pleasure to invite you to take part in this conference. I should be glad to have you select three citizens to accompany you and to attend the conference as your assistants or advisers. I shall also invite the Senators and Representatives of the Sixtieth Congress to be present at the sessions so far as their duties permit them.

The matters to be considered at this conference are not confined to any region or group of States, but are of vital concern to the nation as a whole and to all the people. Those subjects include the use and conservation of the mineral resources, the resources of the land, and the resources of the waters in every part of our territory.

In order to open discussion, I shall invite a few recognized authorities to present brief descriptions of actual facts and conditions, without argument, leaving the conference to deal with each topic as it may elect. The members of the Inland Waterways Commission will be present in order to share with me the benefits of information and suggestion, and, if desired, to set forth their provisional plans and conclusions.

Facts, which I cannot gainsay, force me to believe that the conservation of our natural resources is the most weighty

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question now before the people of the United States. If this is so the proposed conference, which is the first of its kind, will be among the most important gatherings in our history in its effect upon the welfare of our people.

I earnestly hope, my dear Governor, that you will find it possible to be present.

Sincerely yours,

(Signed) THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

All the Governors of the States and Territories accepted, conditionally on grounds of health or pressure of public affairs.

In December, and later, the President issued invitations to organizations dealing with natural resources, which were generally accepted. One of these was as follows:

MY DEAR SIRS—I invited the Governors of the States and Territories to meet in the White House on May 13-15 next in a conference on the conservation of natural resources. In issuing the invitation, I expressed the opinion that there is urgent need of taking stock of our resources, and I added my belief that the conference ought to take rank among the more important meetings in the history of the country.

The replies to the invitations have been most gratifying. They indicate that practically all the Governors, each with three special advisers, will attend the conference. The members of the Sixtieth Congress, the Justices of the Supreme Court, and the members of the Cabinet have also been invited to take part; and the Inland Waterways Commission, which suggested the conference, will be present to reply to inquiries and make record of the proceedings. A limited number of leading associations of national scope concerned with our natural resources will be invited to send one representative each to take part in the discussions. The general purpose of the conference is indicated on pages 24-26 of the preliminary report of the Waterways Commission of which a copy is enclosed.

I invite the cooperation of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers in bringing this matter before the people; and it gives me added pleasure to invite you, as President of the Society, to take part in the conference.

Sincerely yours,

(Signed) THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

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Meantime correspondence was conducted with experts by the President or his Secretary, and also by the Conference Committee; and a syllabus was prepared for the guidance of experts in the preparation of opening statements. This syllabus is printed in later pages of this magazine.

In the course of the correspondence, the President invited as special guests five eminent citizens widely recognized as authorities on national aspects of the resources of the country.

As the plans for the conference grew definitely, early in the correspondence, and it became clear that the deliberations and statements of the Governors and other conferees might assume such importance as to be of interest to the coordinate branches of the Federal Government, the Justices of the Supreme Court, members of the Sixtieth Congress, and also members of the Cabinet, were invited by the President to take part.

Throughout it was intended to provide for press attendance in the interests of the public and to prevent possible misapprehension of purpose; and as the time for the Conference approached it was decided to invite representatives of the periodical press as well as the daily press. The former, coming from different parts of the country, were personally invited by the President, after selection by the Periodical Publishers Association; the latter (forty in number) were selected by the managing committee of the Congressional Press Gallery, from the Washington representatives of the leading papers and entered on personal recognition and press badges, under regulations of their committee.

Finally towards the end of April, a limited number of bureau chiefs and other experts of national reputation connected with the Federal service were invited by the President to take part in the conference; and these invitations, like all others, were generally accepted.

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# Conservation of Natural Resources*

## Weightiest Problem Before Our People--Duty of the Nation and the States

By Theodore Roosevelt.

*Governors of the several States; and Gentlemen:*

I welcome you to this conference at the White House. You have come hither at my request so that we may join together to consider the question of the conservation and use of the great fundamental sources of wealth of this Nation. So vital is this question, that for the first time in our history the chief executive officers of the States separately, and of the States together forming the Nation, have met to consider it.

With the governors come men from each State chosen for their special acquaintance with the terms of the problem that is before us. Among them are experts in natural resources and representatives of national organizations concerned in the development and use of these resources; the Senators and Representatives in Congress; the Supreme Court, the Cabinet, and the Inland Waterways Commission have likewise been invited to the conference, which is therefore national in a peculiar sense.

This conference on the conservation of natural resources is in effect a meeting of the representatives of all the people of the United States called to consider the weightiest problem now before the Nation; and the occasion for the meeting lies in the fact that the natural resources of our country are in danger of exhaustion if we permit the old wasteful methods of exploiting them longer to continue.

With the rise of peoples from savagery to civilization, and the consequent growth in the extent and variety of the needs of the average man, there comes a steadily increasing

*Address of President Roosevelt at the opening of the Conference on the Conservation of National Resources, at the White House, May 13, 1908.

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growth of the amount demanded by this average man from the actual resources of the country. Yet, rather curiously, at the same time the average man is apt to lose his realization of this dependence upon nature.

Savages, and very primitive peoples generally, concern themselves only with superficial natural resources; with those which they obtain from the actual surface of the ground. As peoples become a little less primitive, their industries, although in a rude manner, are extended to resources below the surface; then, with what we call civilization and the extension of knowledge, more resources come into use, industries are multiplied, and foresight begins to become a necessary and prominent factor in life. Crops are cultivated; animals are domesticated; and metals are mastered.

Every step of the progress of mankind is marked by the discovery and use of natural resources previously unused. Without such progressive knowledge and utilization of natural resources population could not grow, nor industries multiply, nor the hidden wealth of the earth be developed for the benefit of mankind.

From the first beginnings of civilization, on the banks of the Nile and the Euphrates, the industrial progress of the world has gone on slowly, with occasional setbacks, but on the whole steadily, through tens of centuries to the present day. But of late the rapidity of the process has increased at such a rate that more space has been actually covered during the century and a quarter occupied by our national life than during the preceding six thousand years that take us back to the earliest monuments of Egypt, to the earliest cities of the Babylonian plain.

When the founders of this nation met at Independence Hall in Philadelphia the conditions of commerce had not fundamentally changed from what they were when the Phœnician keels first furrowed the lonely waters of the Mediterranean. The differences were those of degree, not of kind, and they were not in all cases even those of degree.

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Mining was carried on fundamentally as it had been carried on by the Pharaohs in the countries adjacent to the Red Sea.

The wares of the merchants of Boston, of Charleston, like the wares of the merchants of Nineveh and Sidon, if they went by water, were carried by boats propelled by sails or oars; if they went by land were carried in wagons drawn by beasts of draft or in packs on the backs of beasts of burden. The ships that crossed the high seas were better than the ships that had once crossed the Aegean, but they were of the same type, after all—they were wooden ships propelled by sails; and on land, the roads were not as good as the roads of the Roman Empire, while the service of the posts was probably inferior.

In Washington's time anthracite coal was known only as a useless black stone; and the great fields of bituminous coal were undiscovered. As steam was unknown, the use of coal for power production was undreamed of. Water was practically the only source of power, save the labor of men and animals; and this power was used only in the most primitive fashion. But a few small iron deposits had been found in this country, and the use of iron by our countrymen was very small. Wood was practically the only fuel, and what lumber was sawed was consumed locally, while the forests were regarded chiefly as obstructions to settlement and cultivation.

Such was the degree of progress to which civilized mankind had attained when this nation began its career. It is almost impossible for us in this day to realize how little our Revolutionary ancestors knew of the great store of natural resources whose discovery and use have been such vital factors in the growth and greatness of this nation, and how little they required to take from this store in order to satisfy their needs.

Since then our knowledge and use of the resources of the present territory of the United States have increased a hundred-fold. Indeed, the growth of this Nation by leaps and bounds makes one of the most striking and important chapters in the history of the world. Its growth has been

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due to the rapid development, and alas! that it should be said, to the rapid destruction, of our natural resources. Nature has supplied to us in the United States, and still supplies to us, more kinds of resources in a more lavish degree than has ever been the case at any other time or with any other people. Our position in the world has been attained by the extent and thoroughness of the control we have achieved over nature; but we are more, and not less, dependent upon what she furnishes than at any previous time of history since the days of primitive man.

Yet our fathers, though they knew so little of the resources of the country, exercised a wise forethought in reference thereto. Washington clearly saw that the perpetuity of the States could only be secured by union, and that the only feasible basis of union was an economic one; in other words, that it must be based on the development and use of their natural resources. Accordingly, he helped to outline a scheme of commercial development, and by his influence an interstate waterways commission was appointed by Virginia and Maryland.

It met near where we are now meeting, in Alexandria, adjourned to Mount Vernon, and took up the consideration of interstate commerce by the only means then available, that of water. Further conferences were arranged, first at Annapolis and then at Philadelphia. It was in Philadelphia that the representatives of all the States met for what was in its original conception merely a waterways conference; but when they had closed their deliberations the outcome was the Constitution which made the States into a Nation.

The Constitution of the United States thus grew in large part out of the necessity for united action in the wise use of one of our natural resources. The wise use of all of our natural resources, which are our national resources as well, is the great material question of today. I have asked you to come together now because the enormous consumption of these resources, and the threat of imminent exhaus-

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tion of some of them, due to reckless and wasteful use, once more calls for common effort, common action.

Since the days when the Constitution was adopted, steam and electricity have revolutionized the industrial world. Nowhere has the revolution been so great as in our own country. The discovery and utilization of mineral fuels and alloys have given us the lead over all other nations in the production of steel. The discovery and utilization of coal and iron have given us our railways, and have led to such industrial development as has never before been seen. The vast wealth of lumber in our forests, the riches of our soils and mines, the discovery of gold and mineral oils, combined with the efficiency of our transportation, have made the conditions of our life unparalleled in comfort and convenience.

The steadily increasing drain on these natural resources has promoted to an extraordinary degree the complexity of our industrial and social life. Moreover, this unexampled development has had a determining effect upon the character and opinions of our people. The demand for efficiency in the great task has given us vigor, effectiveness, decision, and power, and a capacity for achievement which in its own lines has never yet been matched. So great and so rapid has been our material growth that there has been a tendency to lag behind in spiritual and moral growth; but that is not the subject upon which I speak to you today.

Disregarding for the moment the question of moral purpose, it is safe to say that the prosperity of our people depends directly on the energy and intelligence with which our natural resources are used. It is equally clear that these resources are the final basis of national power and perpetuity. Finally, it is ominously evident that these resources are in the course of rapid exhaustion.

This Nation began with the belief that its landed possessions were illimitable and capable of supporting all the people who might care to make our country their home; but already the limit of unsettled land is in sight, and indeed but little land fitted for agriculture now remains unoccupied

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save what can be reclaimed by irrigation and drainage. We began with an unapproached heritage of forests; more than half of the timber is gone. We began with coal fields more extensive than those of any other nation and with iron ores regarded as inexhaustible, and many experts now declare that the end of both iron and coal is in sight.

The mere increase in our consumption of coal during 1907 over 1906 exceeded the total consumption in 1876, the Centennial year. The enormous stores of mineral oil and gas are largely gone. Our natural waterways are not gone, but they have been so injured by neglect, and by the division of responsibility and utter lack of system in dealing with them, that there is less navigation on them now than there was fifty years ago. Finally, we began with soils of unexampled fertility and we have so impoverished them by injudicious use and by failing to check erosion that their crop producing power is diminishing instead of increasing. In a word, we have thoughtlessly, and to a large degree unnecessarily, diminished the resources upon which not only our prosperity but the prosperity of our children must always depend.

We have become great because of the lavish use of our resources and we have just reason to be proud of our growth. But the time has come to inquire seriously what will happen when our forests are gone, when the coal, the iron, the oil, and the gas are exhausted, when the soils shall have been still further impoverished and washed into the streams, polluting the rivers, denuding the fields, and obstructing navigation. These questions do not relate only to the next century or to the next generation. It is time for us now as a Nation to exercise the same reasonable foresight in dealing with our great natural resources that would be shown by any prudent man in conserving and widely using the property which contains the assurance of well-being for himself and his children.

The natural resources I have enumerated can be divided into two sharply distinguished classes accordingly as they are or are not capable of renewal. Mines if used must

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necessarily be exhausted. The minerals do not and can not renew themselves. Therefore in dealing with the coal, the oil, the gas, the iron, the metals, generally, all that we can do is to try to see that they are wisely used. The exhaustion is certain to come in time.

The second class of resources consists of those which can not only be used in such manner as to leave them undiminished for our children, but can actually be improved by wise use. The soil, the forests, the waterways come in this category. In dealing with mineral resources, man is able to improve on nature only by putting the resources to a beneficial use which in the end exhausts them; but in dealing with the soil and its products man can improve on nature by compelling the resources to renew and even reconstruct themselves in such manner as to serve increasingly beneficial uses—while the living waters can be so controlled as to multiply their benefits.

Neither the primitive man nor the pioneer was aware of any duty to posterity in dealing with the renewable resources. When the American settler felled the forests, he felt that there was plenty of forest left for the sons who came after him. When he exhausted the soil of his farm he felt that his son could go West and take up another. So it was with his immediate successors. When the soil-wash from the farmer's fields choked the neighboring river he thought only of using the railway rather than boats for moving his produce and supplies.

Now all this is changed. On the average the son of the farmer of today must make his living on his father's farm. There is no difficulty in doing this if the father will exercise wisdom. No wise use of a farm exhausts its fertility. So with the forests. We are on the verge of a timber famine in this country, and it is unpardonable for the Nation or the States to permit any further cutting of our timber save in accordance with a system which will provide that the next generation shall see the timber increased instead of diminished. Moreover, we can add enormous tracts of the most valuable possible agricultural land

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to the national domain by irrigation in the arid and semi-arid regions and by drainage of great tracts of swamp land in the humid regions. We can enormously increase our transportation facilities by the canalization of our rivers so as to complete a great system of waterways on the Pacific, Atlantic, and Gulf coasts and in the Mississippi Valley, from the Great Plains to the Alleghenies and from the northern lakes to the mouth of the mighty Father of Waters. But all these various uses of our natural resources are so closely connected that they should be coördinated, and should be treated as part of one coherent plan and not in haphazard and piecemeal fashion.

It is largely because of this that I appointed the Waterways Commission last year and that I have sought to perpetuate its work. I wish to take this opportunity to express in heartiest fashion my acknowledgement to all the members of the Commission. At great personal sacrifice of time and effort they have rendered a service to the public for which we cannot be too grateful. Especial credit is due to the initiative, the energy, the devotion to duty and the far-sightedness of Gifford Pinchot, to whom we owe so much of the progress we have already made in handling this matter of the coördination and conservation of natural resources. If it had not been for him this convention neither would nor could have been called.

We are coming to recognize as never before the right of the Nation to guard its own future in the essential matter of natural resources. In the past we have admitted the right of the individual to injure the future of the Republic for his own present profit. As a people we have the right and the duty, second to none other but the right and duty of obeying the moral law, of requiring and doing justice, to protect ourselves and our children against the wasteful development of our natural resources, whether that waste is caused by the actual destruction of such resources or by making them impossible of development hereafter.

Any right thinking father earnestly desires and strives to leave his son both an untarnished name and a reasonable

equipment for the struggle of life. So this Nation as a whole should earnestly desire and strive to leave to the next generation the national honor unstained and the national resources unexhausted. There are signs that both the Nation and the States are waking to a realization of this great truth. On March 10, 1908, the supreme court of Maine rendered an exceedingly important judicial decision. This opinion was rendered in response to questions as to the right of the legislature to restrict the cutting of trees on private land for the prevention of droughts and floods, the preservation of the natural water supply, and the prevention of the erosion of such lands, and the consequent filling up of rivers, ponds, and lakes. The forests and water power of Maine constitute the larger part of her wealth and form the basis of her industrial life, and the question submitted by the Maine senate to the supreme court and the answer of the supreme court alike bear testimony to the wisdom of the people of Maine, and clearly define a policy of conservation of natural resources, the adoption of which is of vital importance not merely to Maine but to the whole country.

Such a policy will preserve soil, forests, water power as a heritage for the children and the children's children of the men and women of this generation; for any enactment that provides for the wise utilization of the forests, whether in public or private ownership, and for the conservation of the water resources of the country, must necessarily be legislation that will promote both private and public welfare; for flood prevention, water power development, preservation of the soil, and improvement of navigable rivers are all promoted by such a policy of forest conservation.

The opinion of the Maine supreme bench sets forth unequivocally the principle that the property rights of the individual are subordinate to the rights of the community, and especially that the waste of wild timber land derived originally from the State, involving as it would the impoverishment of the State and its people and thereby defeating one great purpose of government, may properly be prevented by State restrictions.

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The court says that there are two reasons why the right of the public to control and limit the use of private property is peculiarly applicable to property in land: "First, such property is not the result of productive labor, but is derived solely from the State itself, the original owner; second, the amount of land being incapable of increase, if the owners of large tracts can waste them at will without State restriction, the State and its people may be helplessly impoverished and one great purpose of government defeated. * * * We do not think the proposed legislation would operate to 'take' private property within the inhibition of the Constitution. While it might restrict the owner of wild and uncultivated lands in his use of them, might delay his taking some of the product, might delay his anticipated profits and even thereby might cause him some loss of profit, it would nevertheless leave him his lands, their product and increase, untouched, and without diminution of title, estate, or quantity. He would still have large measure of control and large opportunity to realize values. He might suffer delay but not deprivation. * * * The proposed legislation * * * would be within the legislative power and would not operate as a taking of private property for which compensation must be made."

The court of errors and appeals of New Jersey has adopted a similar view, which has recently been sustained by the Supreme Court of the United States. In delivering the opinion of the Court on April 6, 1908, Mr. Justice Holmes said: "The State as quasi-sovereign and representative of the interests of the public has a standing in court to protect the atmosphere, the water, and the forests within its territory, irrespective of the assent or dissent of the private owners of the land most immediately concerned. * * * It appears to us that few public interests are more obvious, indisputable and independent of particular theory than the interest of the public of a State to maintain the rivers that are wholly within it substantially undiminished, except by such drafts upon them as the guardian of the public welfare may permit for the purpose of turning them to a more per-

fect use. This public interest is omnipresent wherever there is a State, and grows more pressing as population grows * * * We are of opinion, further, that the constitutional power of the State to insist that its natural advantages shall remain unimpaired by its citizens is not dependent upon any nice estimate of the extent of present use or speculation as to future needs. The legal conception of the necessary is apt to be confined to somewhat rudimentary wants, and there are benefits from a great river that might escape a lawyer's view. But the State is not required to submit even to an esthetic analysis. Any analysis may be inadequate. It finds itself in possession of what all admit to be a great public good, and what it has it may keep and give no one a reason for its will."

These decisions reach the root of the idea of conservation of our resources in the interests of our people.

Finally, let us remember that the conservation of our natural resources, though the gravest problem of today, is yet but part of another and greater problem to which this nation is not yet awake, but to which it will awake in time, and with which it must hereafter grapple if it is to live—the problem of national efficiency, the patriotic duty of insuring the safety and continuation of the Nation. When the people of the United States consciously undertake to raise themselves as citizens, and the Nation and the States in their several spheres, to the highest pitch of excellence in private, State, and national life and to do this because it is the first of all the duties of true patriotism, then and not till then the future of this Nation, in quality and in time, will be assured.

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# Declaration of Governors for Conservation of Natural Resources

## Platform of Principles Adopted by the Executives of the Various States

THE Declaration of Governors was adopted by the conference of governors of the States and Territories called by President Roosevelt to consider the conservation of our natural resources, which met at the White House May 13, 14, and 15, 1908. Besides the governors there were invited to the conference the members of the Cabinet, the justices of the Supreme Court, the members of both Houses of Congress, representatives of the great national organizations, the Inland Waterways Commission, and, as special guests, Hon. William Jennings Bryan, Mr. James J. Hill, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, and Mr. John Mitchell. The late ex-President Grover Cleveland was also invited as a special guest, but illness prevented him from attending. At the request of the President each governor brought with him to the conference three citizens from his State or Territory to act as assistants or advisers.

The object of the conference was stated by the President in his letter of invitation to the governors, in which he said:

It seems to me time for the country to take account of its natural resources, and to inquire how long they are likely to last. We are prosperous now; we should not forget that it will be just as important to our descendents to be prosperous in their time.

Papers which discussed the present state of our various natural resources were read by experts and specialists in each respective line, and these were followed by an open discussion among the governors of the points brought out.

The conference then appointed a committee to draft a declaration, consisting of the following: Governor Newton C. Blanchard, of Louisiana; Governor John Franklin Fort, of New Jersey; Governor J. O. Davidson, of Wisconsin;



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Governor John C. Cutler, of Utah; and Governor Martin F. Ansel, of South Carolina.

This committee prepared and submitted the following declaration which was unanimously adopted by the conference of governors.

**Declaration.**

We, the governors of the States and Territories of the United States of America, in conference assembled, do hereby declare the conviction that the great prosperity of our country rests upon the abundant resources of the land chosen by our forefathers for their homes, and where they laid the foundation of this great nation.

We look upon these resources as a heritage to be made use of in establishing and promoting the comfort, prosperity, and happiness of the American people, but not to be wasted, deteriorated, or needlessly destroyed.

We agree that our country's future is involved in this; that the great natural resources supply the material basis upon which our civilization must continue to depend, and upon which the perpetuity of the nation itself rests.

We agree, in the light of the facts brought to our knowledge and from information received from sources which we can not doubt, that this material basis is threatened with exhaustion. Even as each succeeding generation from the birth of the nation has performed its part in promoting the progress and development of the Republic, so do we in this generation recognize it as a high duty to perform our part; and this duty in large degree lies in the adoption of measures for the conservation of the natural wealth of the country.

We declare our firm conviction that this conservation of our natural resources is a subject of transcendent importance which should engage unremittingly the attention of the nation, the States, and the people in earnest cooperation. These natural resources include the land on which we live and which yields our food; the living waters which fertilize the soil, supply power, and form great avenues of commerce;

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the forests which yield the materials for our homes, prevent erosion of the soil, and conserve the navigation and other uses of the streams; and minerals which form the basis of industrial life, and supply us with heat, light, and power.

We agree that the land should be so used that erosion and soil wash shall cease; and that there should be reclamation of arid and semiarid regions by means of irrigation, and of swamp and overflowed regions by means of drainage; that the waters should be so conserved and used as to promote navigation, to enable the arid regions to be reclaimed by irrigation, and to develop power in the interests of the people; that the forests which regulate our rivers, support our industries, and promote the fertility and productiveness of the soil should be preserved and perpetuated; that the minerals found so abundantly beneath the surface should be so used as to prolong their utility; that the beauty, healthfulness, and habitability of our country should be preserved and increased; that sources of national wealth exist for the benefit of the people, and that monopoly thereof should not be tolerated.

We commend the wise forethought of the President in sounding the note of warning as to the waste and exhaustion of the natural resources of the country, and signify our high appreciation of his action in calling this conference to consider the same and to seek remedies therefor through coöperation of the Nation and the States.

We agree that this cooperation should find expression in suitable action by the Congress within the limits of and coextensive with the national jurisdiction of the subject, and, complementary thereto, by legislatures of the several States within the limits of and coextensive with their jurisdiction.

We declare the conviction that in the use of the national resources our independent States are interdependent and bound together by ties of mutual benefits, responsibilities, and duties.

We agree in the wisdom of future conferences between the President, Members of Congress, and the governors of

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States on the conservation of our natural resources with a view of continued cooperation and action on the lines suggested; and to this end we advise that from time to time, as in his judgment may seem wise, the President call the governors of States and Members of Congress and others into conference.

We agree that further action is advisable to ascertain the present condition of our natural resources and to promote the conservation of the same; and to that end we recommend the appointment by each State of a commission on the conservation of natural resources, to cooperate with each other and with a commission of the Federal Government.

We urge the continuation and extension of forest policies adapted to secure the husbanding and renewal of our diminishing timber supply, the prevention of soil erosion, the protection of headwaters, and the maintenance of the purity and navigability of our streams. We recognize that the private ownership of forest lands entails responsibilities in the interests of all the people, and we favor the enactment of laws looking to the protection and replacement of privately owned forests.

We recognize in our waters a most valuable asset of the people of the United States, and we recommend the enactment of laws looking to the conservation of water resources for irrigation, water supply, power, and navigation, to the end that navigable and source streams may be brought under complete control and fully utilized for every purpose. We especially urge on the Federal Congress the immediate adoption of a wise, active, and thorough waterway policy, providing for the prompt improvement of our streams and the conservation of their watersheds required for the uses of commerce and the protection of the interests of our people.

We recommend the enactment of laws looking to the prevention of waste in the mining and extraction of coal, oil, gas, and other minerals with a view to their wise conservation for the use of the people, and to the protection of human life in the mines.

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Let us conserve the foundations of our prosperity.

# The National Conservation Commission

## How it Came Into Existence, its Work and its Personnel

THE National Conservation Commission came into existence at the direct suggestion of the Governors of the States and Territories assembled in Washington, upon invitation of President Roosevelt, at the great meeting on natural resources in the White House in May, 1908. It is one part of a scheme of cooperation between the States and the Nation, the other part of which has been provided by the Governors, thirty-seven of whom have appointed Conservation Commissions, whose purpose, in the language of the Governors, is to work with the National Commission "to ascertain the present condition of our natural resources and to promote their conservation."

In addition to the States, forty-seven of the great national associations concerned with the use of natural resources have appointed Conservation Committees of their own. The National Commission is therefore the central part of a structure which covers the whole Nation.

The letter of the President creating the National Conservation Commission is reprinted here, together with the substance of the minutes of the first meeting of the Executive Committee.

*Letter of the President Appointing the National Conservation Commission.*

THE WHITEHOUSE,
WASHINGTON, June 8, 1908.

The recent Conference of Governors in the White House confirmed and strengthened in the minds of our people the conviction that our natural resources are being consumed, wasted, and destroyed at a rate which threatens them with exhaustion. It was demonstrated that the inevitable re-


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sult of our present course towards these resources, if we should persist in following it, would ultimately be the impoverishment of our people. The Governors present adopted unanimously a Declaration reciting the necessity for a more careful conservation of the foundations of our national prosperity, and recommending a more effective cooperation to this end among the States and between the States and the Nation. A copy of this Declaration is enclosed.

One of the most useful among the many useful recommendations in the admirable Declaration of the Governors relates to the creation of State commissions on the conservation of resources, to cooperate with a Federal Commission. This action of the governors cannot be disregarded. It is obviously the duty of the Federal Government to accept this invitation to cooperate with the States in order to conserve the natural resources of our whole country. It is no less clearly the duty of the President to lay before the Federal Congress information as to the state of the Union in relation to the natural resources, and to recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient. In order to make such recommendations the President must procure the necessary information. Accordingly, I have decided to appoint a Commission to inquire into and advise me as to the condition of our natural resources, and to cooperate with other bodies created for a similar purpose by the States.

The Inland Waterways Commission, appointed March 14, 1907, which suggested the Conference of Governors, was asked to consider the other natural resources related to our inland waterways, and it has done so. But the two subjects together have grown too large to be dealt with by the original body.* The creation of a Commission on the Conservation

*Note: In his letter reappointing the Inland Waterways Commission (Section of Waters) the President added as members William B. Allison of Iowa, on whose death Senator J. P. Dolliver of of Iowa was appointed to the vacancy; Hon. Joseph E. Ransdell of Louisiana; Prof. George F. Swain of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. On the retirement of General Alexander McKenzie as Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., Gen. W. L. Marshall, his successor, took place on the Commission.

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of Natural Resources will thus promote the special work for which the Inland Waterways Commission was created, and for which it has just been continued and enlarged, by enabling it to concentrate on its principal task.

The Commission on the Conservation of Natural Resources will be organized in four sections to consider the four great classes of water resources, forest resources, resources of the land, and mineral resources. I am asking the members of the Inland Waterways Commission to form the Section of Waters of the National Conservation Commission. In view of the lateness of the season and the difficulty of assembling the members of the sections at this time, a Chairman and a Secretary for each Section have been designated, and the chairmen and secretaries of the sections will act as the Executive Committee, with a chairman who will also be chairman of the entire Commission. I earnestly hope that you will consent to act as a member of the Commission.*

One of the principal objects of the Federal Commission on the Conservation of Natural Resources will be to coöperate with corresponding commissions or their agencies appointed on behalf of the States, and it is hoped that the Governors and their appointees will join with the Federal Commission in working out and developing a plan whereby the needs of the nation as a whole and of each State and Territory may be equitably met.

The work of the Commission should be conditioned upon keeping ever in mind the great fact that the life of the nation depends absolutely on the material resources, which have already made the nation great. Our object is to conserve the foundations of our prosperity. We intend to use these resources; but to so use them as to conserve them. No effort should be made to limit the wise development and application of these resources; every effort should be made to prevent destruction, reduce waste, and so distribute the enjoyment of our natural wealth as to promote the greatest good of the greatest number for the longest time.

**The personnel of the National Conservation Commission will be found appended to this letter.

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The Commission must keep in mind the further fact that all the natural resources are so related that their use may be, and should be, coördinated. Thus, the development of water transportation, which requires less iron and less coal than rail transportation, will reduce the draft on mineral resources; the judicious development of forests will not only supply fuel and structural material, but increase the navigability of streams, and so promote water transportation; and the control of streams will reduce soil erosion and permit American farms to increase in fertility and productiveness and so continue to feed the country and maintain a healthy and beneficial foreign commerce. The proper coördination of the use of our resources is a prime requisite for continued national prosperity.

The recent conference of the Governors, of the men who are the direct sponsors for the well-being of the States, was notable in many respects; in none more than in this, that the dignity, the autonomy, and yet the interdependence and mutual dependence of the several States were all emphasized and brought into clear relief, as rarely before in our history. There is no break between the interests of State and nation; these interests are essentially one. Hearty coöperation between the State and the national agencies is essential to the permanent welfare of the people. You, on behalf of the Federal Government, will do your part to bring about this coöperation.

In order to make available to the National Conservation Commission all the information and assistance which it may desire from the Federal departments, I shall issue an Executive Order directing them to give such help as the Commission may need.

The next session of Congress will end on March 4, 1909. Accordingly, I should be glad to have at least a preliminary report from the Commission not later than January 1 of next year.

Sincerely yours,

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

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PERSONNEL OF THE NATIONAL CONSERVATION COMMISSION.

Gifford Pinchot, Chairman.

Thomas R. Shipp, Secretary.

Executive Committee—Gifford Pinchot, Theodore E. Burton, Reed Smoot, Knute Nelson, John Dalzell, W. J. McGee, Overton W. Price, G. W. Woodruff, Joseph A. Holmes.

Waters—Theodore E. Burton, Ohio, Chairman; Francis G. Newlands, Nevada; Jonathan P. Dolliver, Iowa; William Warner, Missouri; John H. Bankhead, Alabama; W. J. McGee, Bureau of Soils, Secretary; F. H. Newell, Reclamation Service; Gifford Pinchot, Forest Service; Herbert Knox Smith, Bureau of Corporations; Joseph E. Ransdell, Louisiana; G. F. Swain, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; W. L. Marshall, Brigadier General United States Army, Chief of Engineers.

Forests—Reed Smoot, Utah, Chairman; Albert J. Beveridge, Indiana; Charles F. Scott, Kansas; Champ Clark, Missouri; J. B. White, Missouri; Henry S. Graves, Yale Forest School; William Irvine, Wisconsin; Newton C. Blanchard, Louisiana; Charles L. Pack, New Jersey; Irving Fisher, Connecticut; Gustav H. Schwab, New York; Overton W. Price, Forest Service, Secretary.

Lands—Knute Nelson, Minnesota, Chairman; Francis E. Warren, Wyoming; Swagar Sherley, Kentucky; Herbert Parsons, New York; N. B. Broward, Florida; James J. Hill, Minnesota; George C. Pardee, California; Charles Macdonald, New York; Murdo Mackenzie, Colorado; T. C. Chamberlin, University of Chicago; Frank C. Goudy, Colorado; George W. Woodruff, Interior Department, Secretary.

Minerals—John Dalzell, Pennsylvania, Chairman; Joseph M. Dixon, Montana; Frank P. Flint, California; Lee S. Overman, North Carolina; Philo Hall, South Dakota; James L. Slayden, Texas; Andrew Carnegie, New York; Charles R. Van Hise, Wisconsin; John Mitchell, Illinois; John Hays Hammond, Massachusetts; I. C. White, West Virginia; J. A. Holmes, Secretary Geological Survey.

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# Report of National Conservation Commission

## First Inventory of its Natural Resources Ever Made by Any Nation

ON January 11, 1909, there was transmitted to President Roosevelt the report of the National Conservation Commission, by its chairman, Mr. Gifford Pinchot.

This report is in every way a remarkable document. It contains an inventory of our natural resources, "the first ever made by any nation," to quote Mr. Roosevelt, and the work of a body of men peculiarly well adapted by temperament and training for this tremendously important task.

The report of the National Conservation Commission is the work of this body done in coöperation with bureaus of the Federal departments, authorities of the different States, and the representative bodies of the national industries. On January 22 the report of the National Conservation Commission was transmitted to Congress with a recommendation that $50,000 be appropriated for the expenses of the Commission.

### I. General Statement.

The duty of man to man, on which the integrity of nations must rest, is no higher than the duty of each generation to the next; and the obligation of the nation to each actual citizen is no more sacred than the obligation to the citizen to be, who, in turn, must bear the nation's duties and responsibilities.

In this country, blessed with natural resources in unsurpassed profusion, the sense of responsibility to the future has been slow to awaken. Beginning without appreciation of the measure or the value of natural resources other than land with water for commercial uses, our forefathers pushed into the wilderness and, through a spirit of enterprise which is the glory of the nation, developed other great resources. Forests were cleared away as obstacles to the use of the

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land; iron and coal were discovered and developed, though for years their presence added nothing to the price of the land; and through the use of native woods and metals and fuels, manufacturing grew beyond all precedent, and the country became a power among the nations of the world.

Gradually the timber growing on the ground, and the iron and coal within the ground, came to have a market value and were bought and sold as sources of wealth. Meanwhile, vast holdings of these resources were acquired by those of greater foresight than their neighbors before it was generally realized that they possessed value in themselves; and in this way large interests, assuming monopolistic proportions, grew up, with greater enrichment to their holders than the world had seen before, and with the motive of immediate profit, with no concern for the future or thought of the permanent benefit of country and people, a wasteful and profligate use of the resources began and has continued.

The waters, at first recognized only as aids to commerce in supplying transportation routes, were largely neglected. In time this neglect began to be noticed, and along with it the destruction and approaching exhaustion of the forests. This, in turn, directed attention to the rapid depletion of the coal and iron deposits and the misuse of the land.

The public conscience became awakened. Seeing the increased value and noting the destructive consumption and waste of the natural resources, men began to realize that the permanent welfare of the country as well as the prosperity of their offspring were at stake.

The newly awakened sense of duty found expression in a call by the President upon the governors of the States to meet him in conference, and in the declaration of this conference at its sessions in the White House in May, 1908. The action of the conference led to the appointment of the National Conservation Commission, with authority to collect information and coöperate with similar commissions appointed by the States in the great work of conserving the natural resources of the country.

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DEVELOPMENT OF THE COUNTRY.

In the growth of the country and gradual development of the natural resources there have been three noteworthy stages. The first stage was that of individual enterprise for personal and family benefit. It led to the conquest of the wilderness.

The next stage was that of collective enterprise, either for the benefit of communities or for the profit of individuals forming the communities. It led to the development of cities and States, and too often to the growth of great monopolies.

The third stage is the one we are now entering. Within it the enterprise is collective and largely coöperative, and should be directed toward the larger benefit of communities, States, and the people generally.

In the first stage the resources received little thought. In the second they were wastefully used. In the stage which we are entering wise and beneficial uses are essential, and the checking of waste is absolutely demanded.

Although the natural resources are interrelated they are unlike, and each class requires distinct treatment. The land is a fixed quantity which cannot be materially increased, though its productivity and availability for the uses of man may be greatly augmented; the forests are available in quantity and may be destroyed by fire, waste, and improvident use, or protected and improved in such way as to meet human necessities. Together the lands and the forests are improvable resources.

The minerals are limited in quantity and cannot be increased or improved by anything which man may do. They are expendable resources.

The fresh waters are limited in quantity, though the supply is permanent. They form a naturally renewable resource which man may do nothing to increase, but may do much in the way of conservation and better utilization.

The treatment applied to each class should be adapted to its own fullest development and best utilization and to those of the other classes of resources.

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### WASTE.

The waste which most urgently requires checking varies widely in character and amount. The most reprehensible waste is that of destruction, as in forest fires, uncontrolled flow of gas and oil, soil wash, and abandonment of coal in the mines. This is attributable, for the most part, to ignorance, indifference, or false notions of economy, to rectify which is the business of the people collectively.

Nearly as reprehensible is the waste arising from misuse, as in the consumption of fuel in furnaces and engines of low efficiency, the loss of water in floods, the employment of ill-adapted structural materials, the growing of ill-chosen crops, and the perpetuation of inferior stocks of plants and animals, all of which may be remedied.

Reprehensible in less degree is the waste arising from nonuse. Since the utilization of any one resource is necessarily progressive and dependent on social and industrial conditions and the concurrent development of other resources, nonuse is sometimes unavoidable. It becomes reprehensible when it affects the common welfare and entails future injury. Then, it should be rectified in the general interest.

For the prevention of waste the most effective means will be found in the increase and diffusion of knowledge, from which is sure to result an aroused public sentiment demanding prevention. The people have the matter in their own hands. They may prevent or limit the destruction of resources and restrain misuse through the enactment and enforcement of appropriate state and federal laws.

### LIFE AND HEALTH.

At every stage in the growth of our country, strong men grew stronger through the exercise of nation building, and their intelligence and patriotism grew with their strength. The spirit and vigor of our people are the chief glory of the Republic. Yet even as we have neglected our natural resources, so have we been thoughtless of life and health. Too long have we overlooked that grandest of our resources, human life. Natural resources are of no avail

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without men and women to develop them, and only a strong and sound citizenship can make a nation permanently great. We cannot too soon enter on the duty of conserving our chief source of strength by the prevention of disease and the prolongation of life.

Waste reduced and resources saved are the first but not the last object of conservation. The material resources have an additional value when their preservation adds to the beauty and habitability of the land. Ours is a pleasant land in which to dwell. To increase its beauty and augment its fitness cannot but multiply our pleasure in it and strengthen the bonds of our attachment.

In the conservation of all the resources of the country the interest of the present and all future generations is concerned, and in this great work—involving the welfare of the citizen, the family, the community, the state, and the nation—our dual system of government, state and federal, should be brought into harmonious coöperation and collaboration.

## II. Schedule of Inquiries.

*The Schedule of Inquiries of the Conservation Commission is interesting as showing the general lines along which the work on the inventory of our natural resources was pursued. It was as follows:*

### A—LANDS.

*Public Land Laws*:

1. What have been the policies and results of our public land system?
2. What specific changes are necessary in the public land laws to promote the best permanent use of the land?
3. Preparation of a Code of Public Land Laws.

*Tenure*:

4. Is the tendency towards larger or smaller individual holdings generally? In any region? *a.* Farm lands. *b.* Timber lands. *c.* Mineral lands.
5. What are the causes for this tendency?

*Agricultural Productions*:

6. Is crop production per acre increasing or diminish-

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ing in the country at large? In any States or groups of States? What are the causes of this change?

7. If it has diminished, why has it diminished? *a.* Loss of soil fertility. *b.* Erosion and soil wash. *c.* Bad agricultural methods. *d.* Economic causes. *e.* Losses due to injurious insects and mammals.

8. How can soil erosion be reduced? *a.* Forest cover. *b.* Contour cultivation and terracing. *c.* Deep cultivation. *d.* Maintaining mulch and humus.

9. To what extent is increased crop production per acre likely to be needed?

10. How can it be brought about? *a.* Checking erosion and soil wash. *b.* Improved methods of agriculture. *c.* Improved conditions of rural life. *d.* Control of injurious insects and mammals.

*The Public Range*:

11. To what extent, in degree and area, has the carrying capacity of the public range decreased?

12. Why has this decrease occurred?

13. How can the carrying capacity of the public range be improved and maintained?

*Swamp and Overflow Lands*:

14. How much swamp land is there in the United States?

15. How are swamp lands owned?

16. How much swamp and overflowed land has been reclaimed?

17. At what cost?

18. With what results?

19. How much more swamp and overflowed land can be reclaimed?

20. At what estimated cost?

21. With what probable results?

### B—WATERS (IRRIGATION).

1. How much land is now under irrigation?

2. How much more land can be irrigated?

3. What agencies are developing irrigation? *a.* Individual. *b.* Corporate. *c.* State. *d.* National.

4. Do present laws tend to promote irrigation fully and wisely?

5. Upon what modification of law will the best permanent development of irrigation systems depend?

6. Relation of irrigation to *a.* Forests. *b.* Navigation.

*c*. Power. *d*. Domestic and municipal water supply. *e*. Drainage. *f*. Floods.

*Supplemental Data*:

1. The annual rainfall for each year, at all stations, regular and voluntary, with the mean of the years of observation.

2. The annual flow of all streams measured and mean annual flow of all years observed, with area of basins.

C—WATERS (NAVIGATION).

1. How far has the use of inland waterways for traffic decreased?

2. What are the reasons for this decrease? *a*. Railroad competition: Reduction of rates when in competition with water lines; Control of terminals; Control of river lines. *b*. Inadaquate river improvement. *c*. Fluctuation and silting up of navigable streams.

3. What are the advantages of an adequate system of inland waterways for navigation? *a*. Cost of water traffic. *b*. Cost of rail traffic. *c*. Reduced consumption of coal and wood. *d*. Influence of water traffic on rail traffic. *e*. Need of waterway development to meet transportation requirements. *f*. Influence of cheapened transportation on production and commerce.

4. How can our inland waterways be fully utilized for traffic?

General data upon: Growth of transportation in the United States by water and rail—present systems and facilities— urgent lines of development—prospective needs—inland waterways systems of other countries—their cost of construction and maintenance, relation to railroads, rates, and volume of traffic, effect upon production and commerce.

D.—WATERS (POWER).

1. What are the developed water powers of the United States?

2. What are the undeveloped water powers of the United States? *a*. On navigable streams. *b*. On unnavigable streams.

3. Are existing developed water powers put to their full use?

4. Is there a tendency towards consolidation of control of water powers?

5. To what extent are water powers in the possession of corporations subject to State or Federal control?

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6. To what extent can coal be saved by the substitution of water power?

E.—WATERS (FLOOD WATERS).

1. Are floods increasing, and if so, why?
2. To what extent are flood waters wasted?
3. How much damage do they do?
4. To what extent could flood waters be stored? *a.* By forests. *b.* By reservoirs.
5. What would this cost?
6. How much would it save?

F—FORESTS.

1. Original forests of the United States. *a.* Location. *b.* Area. *c.* Species. *d.* Stand.

2. How much timber is left? *a.* In woodlots. *b.* In the hands of corporations, companies, or large private owners. *c.* In the possession of the States. *d.* In the possession of the Federal Government. *e.* Give kind and quality for each of above cases.

3. How much timber is used annually, and where is it cut? *a.* For lumber, lath, and shingles. *b.* For fuel. *c.* For ties. *d.* For pulpwood. *e.* For cooperage. *f.* For mine timbers. *g.* Tanbark. *h.* For distillation. *i.* For veneer. *k.* For posts and poles. *l.* For other purposes. *m.* Give kind and quality for each of above cases.

4. Past and present prices of forest products.

5. How fast is timber being produced under present conditions? *a.* By species. *b.* By classes (sawlogs, poles, etc.). *c.* By regions.

6. How much can the productiveness of our forests be increased through proper management? *a.* Methods to be used. *b.* Species which promise best returns.

7. How long will the supply last if present tendencies are unchecked?

8. How far can we count on foreign sources of supply? *a.* Canada. *b.* Alaska. *c.* The Philippines. *d.* Central and South America. *e.* Other countries.

9. How do the forest resources, consumption and prices of forest products, and use of timber in the United States compare with those in other countries? *a.* Germany. *b.* France. *c.* England. *d.* Russia. *e.* Scandinavia. *f.* India.

10. How does the cost of forest administration in the United States compare with that abroad? *a.* Germany. *b.* France. *c.* India.

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A Pine Tree being worked for Turpentine by the Cup and Gutter System of the Forest Service.

An Adirondack Red Spruce and Balsam Fir Forest killed by Fire. The Forest Floor has been destroyed to the Depth of one Foot, exposing the Roots of the Trees.

Natural Gas Flambeau from escape pipe of a Gas Well. During 1907, $62,000,000 worth was used. The daily Waste of Natural Gas, the most perfect known Fuel, is over 1,000,000,000 cubic feet, or enough to supply every City in the United States of over 100,-

Railroad Bridge wrecked by Flood in East Tennessee. This Flood did fully $10,-000,000 worth of Damage. Flood control is one of the great Problems before the Country.

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Typical Instance of Soil Erosion in North Carolina. Heavy Rainfall carries away the fertile Soil of the Hillsides and deposits it in the Valleys below, destroying them also. Forest Protection needed.

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11. How far are foreign methods of forest administration suited to conditions in the United States?

12. How far are our present timber supplies being wasted or future supplies reduced through *a*. Forest fires. *b*. Turpentining. *c*. Careless logging. *d*. Wasteful mill operations. *e*. Overproduction. *f*. Wasteful use of wood. *g*. Excessive taxation of forest lands. *h*. Abandonment of forest lands which are not reproducing, or clearing for agriculture.

13. How far can these forms of waste be reduced or utilized through *a*. Protection from fire. *b*. Improved methods of turpentining. *c*. Conservative logging. *d*. Economical mill operations. *e*. Utilization of waste materials by chemical or other means. *f*. Regulated production. *g*. Economical use of wood—preservatives—substitutes. *h*. Forest legislation which encourages the holding of timber until the proper time to cut, and which facilitates the managing of cut-over lands for a second crop, *e. g.*, better methods of taxation, fire protection, etc. *i*. Forest planting.

14. What is the fundamental relation between forests and stream-flow? *a*. In the regulation of discharge. *b*. In lessening erosion.

15. What relation do the forests sustain to our great industries and the needs of our civilization?

16. What measures must be adopted to insure the perpetuation of our timber supply? *a*. By individuals. *b*. By the States. *c*. By the Federal Government.

### G—MINERALS.

1. Approximate quantity of our existing mineral resources: *a*. Mineral fuels (coal, lignite, oil, gas). *b*. Iron ores. *c*. Other ores and minerals.

2. Approximate production and use: *a*. Annual production and consumption, and total production to date, of each important mineral. *b*. Rate of increase of production. *c*. Influence of reuse of metals on production.

3. Probable duration of the supply of each important mineral.

4. Nature and extent of waste in the mining extraction, and use of mineral products.

5. Methods of preventing or lessening this waste.

6. How can the duration of mineral resources be extended? *a*. Complete utilization of by-products. *b*. Prevention of waste in mining and extraction. *c*. Increasing efficiency in use. *d*. Discovery and development of substitutes for materials and methods now in use.

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7. Deterioration and loss of metals and other mineral substances through destructive agencies. *a.* Extent of such deterioration and loss. *b.* Nature of such action and methods of preventing it.

OTHER RESOURCES.

*Life and Property*:

1. Conservation of life and property in mining: *a.* Nature and extent of loss of life in mining. *b.* Nature and extent of property losses in mining. *c.* Causes and probable prevention of mine accidents, mine fires, etc.

2. Conservation of life and property through prevention of surface fires: *a.* Nature and extent of the loss of life from fires. *b.* Nature and extent of the loss of property from fires. *c.* Total cost of fire losses, fire insurance, systems of fighting fires, water systems for same, etc. *d.* Possible prevention of such fires through: The investigation of fire-resisting properties of materials; The investigation of fire-proofing systems; Changes in building materials and systems.

*Live Stock*:

3. Live Stock: Diseases, and amount of losses, direct and indirect.

*Fish and Game*:

4. Fish: Annual take by species, condition of supply, measures taken to restock.

5. Game: Condition and distribution of supply, annual destruction and natural increase.

## III. Mineral Resources.

The mineral production of the United States for 1907 exceeded $2,000,000,000, and contributed 66 per cent of the total freight traffic of the country The waste in the extraction and treatment of mineral products during the same year was equivalent to more than $300,000,000.

The production for 1907 included 395,000,000 tons of bituminous and 85,000,000 tons of anthracite coal, 166,000,000 barrels of petroleum, 45,000,000 tons of high-grade and 11,000,000 tons of low-grade iron ore, 2,500,000 tons of phosphate rock, and 869,000,000 pounds of copper. The values of other mineral products during the same year included clay products, $162,000,000; stone, $71,000,000;

cement, $56,000,000; natural gas, $50,000,000; gold, $90,000,000; silver, $37,000,000; lead, $39,000,000, and zinc, $26,000,000.

The available and easily accessible supplies of coal in the United States aggregate approximately 1,400,000,000,000 tons. At the present increasing rate of production this supply will be so depleted as to approach exhaustion before the middle of the next century.

The known supply of high-grade iron ores in the United States approximates 3,840,000,000 tons, which at the present increasing rate of consumption can not be expected to last beyond the middle of the present century. In addition to this, there are assumed to be 59,000,000,000 tons of lower grade iron ores which are not available for use under existing conditions.

The supply of stone, clay, cement, lime, sand, and salt is ample, while the stock of the precious metals and of copper, lead, zinc, sulphur, asphalt, graphite, quicksilver, mica, and the rare metals can not well be estimated, but is clearly exhaustible within one to three centuries unless unexpected deposits be found.

The known supply of petroleum is estimated at 15,000,000,000 to 20,000,000,000 barrels, distributed through six separate fields having an aggregate area of 8,900 square miles. The production is rapidly increasing, while the wastes and the loss through misuse are enormous. The supply can not be expected to last beyond the middle of the present century.

The known natural-gas fields aggregate an area of 9,000 square miles, distributed through 22 States. Of the total yield from these fields during 1907, 400,000,000 cubic feet, valued at $62,000,000, were utilized, while an equal quantity was allowed to escape into the air. The daily waste of natural gas—the most perfect known fuel—is over 1,000,000,000 cubic feet, or enough to supply every city in the United States of over 100,000 population.

Phosphate rock, used for fertilizer, represents the slow

accumulation of organic matter during past ages. In most countries it is scrupulously preserved; in this country it is extensively exported, and largely for this reason its production is increasing rapidly. The original supply can not long withstand the increasing demand.

### CONSUMPTION OF MINERALS INCREASING

The consumption of nearly all our mineral products is increasing far more rapidly than our population. In many cases the waste is increasing more rapidly than the number of our people. In 1776 but a few dozen pounds of iron were in use by the average family; now our annual consumption is over 1,200 pounds per capita. In 1812 no coal was used; now the consumption is over 5 tons and the waste nearly 3 tons per capita.

While the production of coal is increasing enormously, the waste and loss in mining are diminishing. At the beginning of our mineral development the coal abandoned in the mine was two or three times the amount taken out and used. Now the mine waste averages little more than half the amount saved. The chief waste is in imperfect combustion in furnaces and fire boxes. Steam engines utilize on an average about 8 per cent of the thermal energy of the coal. Internal-combustion engines utilize less than 20 per cent, and in electric lighting far less than 1 per cent of the thermal energy is rendered available.

With increasing industries new mineral resources become available from time to time. Some lignites and other low-grade coals are readily gasified, and, through the development of internal-combustion engines, check the consumption of high-grade coals. Peat is becoming important; it is estimated that 14,000,000,000 tons are available in the United States. Its value is enhanced because of distribution through states generally remote from the fields of coal, oil, and natural gas.

The uses of all our mineral resources are interdependent. This is especially true of coal and iron, of which neither can be produced or used without aid from the other,

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and in the production or reduction of all other minerals both coal and iron are employed. The same standard minerals are necessary to the development of power, of which the use is increasing more rapidly than that of any other commodity.

The building operations of the country now aggregate about $1,000,000,000 per year. The direct and indirect losses from fire in the United States during 1907 approximated $450,000,000, or one-half the cost of construction. Of this loss four-fifths, or an average of $1,000,000 per day, could be prevented, as shown by comparison with the standards of construction and fire losses in the larger European countries.

So far as the ores are taken from the mines and reduced to metals, these resources are capitalized; but after thus being changed to a more valuable form they should be so used as to reduce to a minimum the loss by rust, electrolytic action, and other waste.

There is urgent need for greater safety to the miner. The loss of life through mine accidents is appalling, and preventive measures can not be taken too soon.

The National Government should exercise such control of the mineral fuels and phosphate rocks now in its possession as to check waste and prolong our supply.

While the distribution and quantity of most of our important mineral substances are known in a general way, there is imperative need for further surveys and investigations and for researches concerning the less-known minerals.

## IV. The Public Lands.

The total land area of continental United States is 1,900,000,000 acres. Of this but little more than two-fifths is in farms, and less than one-half of the farm area is improved and made a source of crop production. We have nearly 6,000,000 farms; they average 146 acres each. The value of the farms is nearly one-fourth the wealth of the United States. There are more than 300,000,000 acres of

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public grazing land. The number of persons engaged in agricultural pursuits is more than 10,000,000.

We grow one-fifth of the world's wheat crop, three-fifths of its cotton crop, and four-fifths of its corn crop. We plant nearly 50,000,000 acres of wheat annually, with an average yield of about 14 bushels per acre; 100,000,000 acres of corn, yielding an average of 25 bushels per acre; and 30,000,000 acres of cotton, yielding about 12,000,000 bales.

We had on January 1, 1908, 71,000,000 cattle, worth $1,250,000,000; 54,000,000 sheep, worth $211,000,000; and 56,000,000 swine, worth $339,000,000. The census of 1900 showed $137,000,000 worth of poultry in this country, which produced in 1899 293,000,000 dozen eggs.

There has been a slight increase in the average yield of our great staple farm products, but neither the increase in acreage nor the yield per acre has kept pace with our in-increase in population. Within a century we shall probably have to feed three times as many people as now; and the main bulk of our food supply must be grown on our own soil.

The area of cultivated land may possibly be doubled. In addition to the land awaiting the plow, 75,000,000 acres of swamp land can be reclaimed, 40,000,000 acres of desert land irrigated, and millions of acres of brush and wooded land cleared. Our population will increase continuously, but there is a definite limit to the increase of our cultivated acreage. Hence we must greatly increase the yield per acre. The average yield of wheat in the United States is less than 14 bushels per acre, in Germany 28 bushels, and in England 32 bushels. We get 30 bushels of oats per acre, England nearly 45, and Germany more than 47. Our soils are fertile, but our mode of farming neither conserves the soil nor secures full crop returns. Soil fertility need not be diminished, but may be increased. The large yields now obtained from farms in Europe which have been cultivated for a thousand years prove this conclusively. Proper management will double our average yield per acre. The United States can

Google

grow the farm products needed by a population more than three times as great as our country now contains.

### UNNECESSARY FARM LOSSES

The greatest unnecessary loss of our soil is preventable erosion. Second only to this is the waste, nonuse, and misuse of fertilizer derived from animals and men.

The losses to farm products due to injurious mammals is estimated at $130,000,000 annually; the loss through plant diseases reaches several hundred million dollars; and the loss through insects is reckoned at $659,000,000. The damage by birds is balanced by their beneficient work in destroying noxious insects. Losses due to the elements are large, but no estimate has been made of them. Losses to live stock from these causes are diminishing because of protection and feeding during winter. The annual losses from disease among domestic animals are: Horses, 1.8 per cent; cattle, 2 per cent; sheep, 2.2 per cent; and swine, 5.1 percent. Most of these farm losses are preventable.

There is a tendency toward consolidation of farm lands. The estimated area of abandoned farms is 16,000 square miles, or about 3 per cent of the improved land. The causes of abandonment differ in different parts of the country. Where most prevalent, it is caused principally by erosion and exhaustion of the soil.

The product of the fisheries of the United States has an annual value of $57,000,000. Fish culture is carried on by the nation and the States on an enormous scale. Most of the more important food species are propagated, and several species are maintained in that way. Fish from forest waters furnish $21,000,000 worth of food yearly, a supply depending on the preservation of the forests.

Our wild game and fur-bearing animals have been largely exterminated. To prevent their complete extinction the States and the United States have taken in hand their protection, and their numbers are now increasing. Forest game yields over $10,000,000 worth of food each year.

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With game birds the story is much the same—wanton destruction until the number has been greatly reduced, followed in recent years by wise protection, which in some cases allows the remnant to survive and even to increase.

Each citizen of the United States owns an equal undivided interest in about 375,000,000 acres of public lands, exclusive of Alaska and the insular possessions. Besides this there are about 235,000,000 acres of national forests, national parks, and other lands devoted to public use.

### NEED FOR DEFINITE LAND POLICY

Good business sense demands that a definite land policy be formulated. The National Conservation Commission believes that the following will serve as a basis therefor:

1. Every part of the public lands should be devoted to the use which will best subserve the interests of the whole people.

2. The classification of all public lands is necessary for their administration in the interests of the people.

3. The timber, the minerals, and the surface of the public lands should be disposed of separately.

4. Public lands more valuable for conserving water supply, timber, and natural beauties or wonders than for agriculture should be held for the use of the people from all except mineral entry.

5. Title to the surface of the remaining nonmineral public lands should be granted only to actual home seekers.

6. Pending the transfer of title to the remaining public lands they should be administered by the Government and their use should be allowed in a way to prevent or control waste and monopoly.

The present public land laws as a whole do not subserve the best interests of the nation. They should be modified so far as may be required to bring them into conformity with the foregoing outline of policy.

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A Grazing Scene on the Open Range in Oregon. The Ranges are in Bad Condition and Require Strict Regulation if They are to be Improved.

Buffalo grazing in Wichita National Forest, Oklahoma. Forest Game yields more than $10,000,000 worth of Food annually. State and National Protection of Wild Game is increasing the Supply.

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Cattle grazing on Plains. Twenty Acres supports one Steer. Scene in Western Nebraska.

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Prairie Land under Cultivation. Forty Acres supports a Family.

Desert and Desolation. A Cactus Waste; Land practically worthless.

The Work of Reclamation. From Desert to Oranges in four Years.
Land worth $2,500 an acre.

The Romance of the Desert. Scene at the Huntley Irrigation Project (Montana), September, 1905.

**The Huntley Project, October, 1907, after the Government Irrigation Works were completed and Settlers had moved in.**

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North Yakima, California. This land was a desert waste four years before.

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Huntley, Montana, (Huntley Irrigation Project) one year old.

Sage Brush Plain before the Application of Water.

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Draining a Wisconsin Swamp.

Scene of Plenty that followed the Reclamation of a Wisconsin Swamp.

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Convicts Draining Swamplands in South Carolina.

Splendid Development that followed the Passing of the Swamp.

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## V. Forests of the United States

Next to our need of food and water comes our need of timber.

Our industries which subsist wholly or mainly upon wood pay the wages of more than 1,500,000 men and women.

Forests not only grow timber, but they hold the soil and they conserve the streams. They abate the wind and give protection from excessive heat and cold. Woodlands make for the fiber, health, and happiness of the citizen and the nation.

Our forests now cover 550,000,000 acres, or about one-fourth of the United States. The original forests covered not less than 850,000,000 acres.

Forests publicly owned cover one-fourth of the total forest area and contain one-fifth of all our standing timber. Forests privately owned cover three-fourths of the area and contain four-fifths of the standing timber. The timber privately owned is not only four times that publicly owned, but is generally more valuable.

Forestry is now practiced on 70 per cent of the forests publicly owned and on less than 1 per cent of the forests privately owned, or on only 18 per cent of the total area of forests.

The yearly growth of wood in our forests does not average more than 12 cubic feet per acre. This gives a total yearly growth of less than 7,000,000,000 cubic feet.

### WHAT WE HAVE, USE, AND WASTE

We have 200,000,000 acres of mature forests, in which yearly growth is balanced by decay; 250,000,000 acres partly cut over or burned over, but restocking naturally with enough young growth to produce a merchantable crop, and 100,000,000 acres cut over and burned over, upon which young growth is lacking or too scanty to make merchantable timber.

We take from our forests yearly, including waste in logging and in manufacture, 23,000,000,000 cubic feet of wood. We use each year 100,000,000 cords of fire wood;

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Scene in the Dismal Swamp of Virginia. There are nearly 80,000,000 Acres of Swamps in the United States. Enough of this Land can be reclaimed to support 10,000,000 People.

40,000,000,000 feet of lumber; more than 1,000,000,000 posts, poles, and fence rails; 118,000,000 hewn ties; 1,500,000,000 staves; over 133,000,000 sets of heading; nearly 500,000,000 barrel hoops; 3,000,000 cords of native pulp wood; 165,000,000 cubic feet of round mine timber, and 1,250,000 cords of wood for distillation.

Since 1870 forest fires have destroyed a yearly average of 50 lives and $50,000,000 worth of timber. Not less than 50,000,000 acres of forest is burned over yearly. The young growth destroyed by fire is worth far more than the merchantable timber burned.

One-fourth of the standing timber is lost in logging. The boxing of long-leaf pine for turpentine has destroyed one-fifth of the forests worked. The loss in the mill is from one-third to two-thirds of the timber sawed. The loss of mill product in seasoning and fitting for use is from one-seventh to one-fourth .

Of each 1,000 feet which stood in the forest, an average of only 320 feet of lumber is used.

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We take from our forests each year, not counting the loss by fire, three and a half times their yearly growth. We take 40 cubic feet per acre for each 12 cubic feet grown; we take 260 cubic feet per capita, while Germany uses 37 and France 25 cubic feet.

We tax our forests under the general property tax, a method abandoned long ago by every other great nation. Present tax laws prevent reforestation of cut-over land and the perpetuation of existing forests by use.

Great damage is done to standing timber by injurious forest insects. Much of this damage can be prevented at small expense.

To protect our farms from wind and to reforest land best suited for forest growth will require tree planting on an area larger than Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia combined. Lands so far successfully planted make a total area smaller than Rhode Island; and year by year, through careless cutting and fires, we lower the capacity of existing forests to produce their like again, or else totally destroy them.

In spite of substitutes we shall always need much wood. So far our use of it has steadily increased. The condition of the world's supply of timber makes us already dependent upon what we produce. We send out of our country one and a half times as much timber as we bring in. Except for finishing woods, relatively small in amount, we must grow our own supply or go without. Until we pay for our lumber what it costs to grow it, as well as what it costs to log and saw, the price will continue to rise.

### PRESERVATION BY USE.

The preservation by use, under the methods of practical forestry, of all public lands, either in state or federal ownership, is essential to the permanent welfare. In many forest States the acquirement of additional forest lands as state forests is necessary to the best interests of the States themselves.

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The conservation of our mountain forests, as in the Appalachian system, is a national necessity. These forests are required to aid in the regulation of streams used for navigation and other purposes. The conservation of these forests is impracticable through private enterprise alone, by any State alone, or by the Federal Government alone. Effective and immediate cooperation between these three agencies is essential. Federal ownership of limited protective areas upon important watersheds, effective state fire patrol, and the cooperation of private forest owners are all required.

The true remedy for unwise tax laws lies not in laxity in their application nor in special exemption, but in a change in the method of taxation. An annual tax upon the land itself, exclusive of the value of the timber, and a tax upon the timber when cut, is well adapted to actual conditions of forest investment, and is practicable and certain. It is far better that forest land should pay a moderate tax permanently than that it should pay an excessive revenue temporarily and then cease to pay at all.

Forests in private ownership can not be conserved unless they are protected from fire. We need good fire laws, well enforced. Fire control is impossible without an adequate force of men whose sole duty is fire patrol during the dangerous season.

### NEED OF EDUCATION

The conservative use of the forest and of timber by American citizens will not be general until they learn how to practice forestry. Through a vigorous national campaign in education, forestry has taken root in the great body of American citizenship. The basis already exists upon which to build a structure of forest conservation which will endure. This needs the definite commitment of state governments and the Federal Government to their inherent duty of teaching the people how to care for their forests. The final responsibility both for investigative work in forestry

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and for making its results known rests upon the States and upon the nation.

By reasonable thrift, we can produce a constant timber supply beyond our present need, and with it conserve the usefulness of our streams for irrigation, water supply, navigation, and power.

Under right management, our forests will yield over four times as much as now. We can reduce waste in woods and in the mill at least one-third, with present as well as future profit. We can perpetuate the naval stores industry. Preservative treatment will reduce by one-fifth the quantity of timber used in the water or in the ground. We can practically stop forest fires at a cost yearly of one-fifth the value of the merchantable timber burned.

We shall suffer for timber to meet our needs until our forests have had time to grow again. But if we act vigorously, and at once, we shall escape permanent timber scarcity.

## VI. Water Resources

The sole source of our fresh water is rainfall, including snow. From this source all running, standing, and ground waters are derived. The habitability of the country depends on these waters. Our mean annual rainfall is about 30 inches; the quantity about 215,000,000,000,000 cubic feet per year, equivalent to ten Mississippi rivers.

Of the total rainfall, over half is evaporated; about a third flows into the sea; the remaining sixth is either consumed or absorbed. These portions are sometimes called, respectively, the fly-off, the run-off, and the cut-off. They are partly interchangeable. About a third of the run-off, or a tenth of the entire rainfall, passes through the Mississippi. The run-off is increasing with deforestation and cultivation.

Of the 70,000,000,000,000 cubic feet annually flowing into the sea, less than 1 per cent is restrained and utilized for municipal and community supply; less than 2 per cent (or some 10 per cent of that in the arid and semiarid regions) is

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used for irrigation; perhaps 5 percent is used for navigation, and less than 5 per cent for power.

For municipal and community water supply there are protected catchment areas aggregating over 600,000 acres, and over $250,000,000 is invested in waterworks, with nearly as much more in the appurtenant catchment areas and other lands. The population so supplied approaches 10,000,000, and the annual consumption is about 37,500,000,000 cubic feet. The better managed systems protect the catchment areas by forests and grass; the water is controlled and the storm product used, but there is large waste after the water enters the mains.

For irrigation it is estimated that there are $200,000,000 invested in dams, ditches, reservoirs, and other works for the partial control of the waters; and that 1,500,000,000,000 cubic feet are annually diverted to irrigable lands, aggregating some 20,000 square miles. Except in some cases through forestry, few catchment areas are controlled, and few reservoirs are large enough to hold the storm waters. The waste in the public and private projects exceeds 60 per cent, while no more than 25 per cent of the water actually available for irrigation of the arid lands is restrained and diverted.

### NAVIGATION AND POWER

There are in continental United States 282 streams navigated for an aggregate of 26,115 miles, and as much more navigable if improved. There are also 45 canals, aggregating 2,189 miles, besides numerous abandoned canals. Except through forestry in recent years, together with a few reservoirs and canal locks and movable dams, there has been little effort to control headwaters or catchment areas in the interests of navigation, and none of our rivers are navigated to more than a small fraction even of their effective low-water capacity.

The water power now in use is 5,250,000 horsepower; the amount running over government dams and not used is about 1,400,000 horsepower; the amount reasonably available equals or exceeds the entire mechanical power now in

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The Forest in its native Majesty. Scene in the Cascade National Forest, Oregon. In the Background is Mt. Jefferson. The Western Forests are doubly valuable—they furnish Timber and Protection to the Water Supply for the rich, irrigated Valleys below.

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Sequoia National Forest, California. Showing a grove of big trees.

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The Big Trees of California. Among the Wonders of the World and needing the protecting Hand of State and National Governments.

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A Middle-aged Spruce Forest in Austria, showing the Result of careful Forest Management.

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Trees, in Franklin County, Maine, killed by flooding land due to damming lake. Dead trees thrown by wind make good forest fires.

**Paper Mill in Clinton County, Pennsylvania. The Paper and Pulp Mills of the United States use 3,000,000 Cords of Native Wood annually and import 900,000 Cords from Canada.**

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Burnt-over Slope, Salt Lake National Forest, Utah. Reckless cutting followed by repeated Fires has completely destroyed the Forest Growth.

Forest Fire in the Adirondack Mountains of New York. Since 1870 Forest Fires in the United States have each Year destroyed an average of fifty lives, and $50,000,000 worth of timber. The Young Growth destroyed by Fire is worth far more than the merchantable Timber burned.

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Fallen Tree weakened by boxing for Turpentine.—Near Ocilla, Georgia.—The boxing of Trees for Turpentine has destroyed one-fifth of the Forests worked.

A Turpentine Crew, and Pine Tree showing the improved Cup and Gutter System of Turpentining. This System, devised by the U. S. Forest Service, has greatly improved the Yield and prolongs the Life of the Trees.

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An Example of Destructive Lumbering in the Coast Redwood Belt, Eureka, Humboldt Co., California. One-fourth of the Standing Timber is left or otherwise lost in Logging. In the Saw-mill and in Seasoning there is also great loss. An average of only 320 feet of Lumber used for each thousand feet which stood in the Forest shows the Wastefulness of American Lumbering Methods

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Waterpower Development and Cotton-Mills at Columbus, Georgia, on the Chattahoochee River. To perpetuate the Waterpower the Forests at the Headwaters of the River must be Protected.

Passaic Falls, Paterson, N. J. Director M. O. Leighton of the Hydrographic Branch of the U. S. Geological Survey estimates the theoretical Power of our Streams at 230,000,000 Horsepower. The 37,000,000 Horsepower available today exceeds our entire mechanical Power now in use, and would operate every Mill, propel every Train and Boat, and light every City and Town in the Country.

**Great Falls of the Potomac River near Washington, D. C. These Falls will produce 8,000 Horsepower at low water mark.**

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Planting Jack Pine Seedlings in the Dismal River National Forest, Nebraska. The yearly Growth of Wood in our Forests is about 12 Cubic Feet per Acre.

use, or enough to operate every mill, drive every spindle, propel every train and boat, and light every city, town, and village in the country. While the utilization of water power ranks among our most recent and most rapid industrial developments, little effort has been made to control catchment areas or storm waters in any large way for power, though most plants effect local control through reservoirs and other works. Nearly all the freshet and flood water runs to waste, and the low waters which limit the efficiency of power plants are increasing in frequency and duration with the increasing flood run-off.

The practical utility of streams for both navigation and power is measured by the effective low-water stage. The volume carried when the streams rise above this stage is largely wasted and often does serious damage. The direct yearly damage by floods since 1900 has increased steadily

from $45,000,000 to over $238,000,000. The indirect loss through depreciation of property is great, while a large loss arises in impeded traffic through navigation and terminal transfers.

The freshets are attended by destructive soil erosion. The soil matter annually carried into lower rivers and harbors or into the sea is computed at 780,000,000 tons. Soil wash reduces by 10 or 20 per cent the productivity of upland farms and increases channel cutting and bar building in the rivers. The annual loss to the farms alone is fully $500,000,000, and large losses follow the fouling of the waters and the diminished navigability of the streams.

Through imperfect control of the running waters lowlands are temporarily or permanently flooded. It is estimated that there are in mainland United States about 75,000,000 acres of overflow and swamp lands requiring drainage; that by systematic operation these can be drained at moderate expense, and that they would then be worth two or three times the present value and cost of drainage, and would furnish homes for 10,000,000 people.

It is estimated that the quantity of fresh water stored in lakes and ponds (including the American portion of the

Flood Scene in Tennessee, showing devastated Valley.

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Panorama of Sand Hills, Dismal River National Forest, Nebraska. The West has 16,000,000 Acres of Treeless Lands that should be planted. Nearly all our commercial Trees grow faster than those of Europe. We already grow Post Timber in twenty-five to thirty Years; Mine Timbers in twenty-five to thirty-five Years; Tie Timber in thirty-five to forty years; and Saw Timber in thirty-five to seventy-five years.

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Wasatch Forest Planting Station in Utah. The United States has 65,000,000 Acres of stripped Lands suitable only for the Growing of Trees. Thus far less than 1,000,000 Acres have been planted.

Pine Nursery on Dismal River National Forest, Nebraska. These Seedling Pines are Grown to Plant in the Nebraska Sandhills, now Treeless.

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Great Lakes) is about 600,000,000,000,000 cubic feet, equivalent to three years' rainfall or eight years' run-off. Some 6,000,000 of our people draw their water supply from lakes.

### BASIS OF INDUSTRIES

A large part of that half of the annual rainfall not evaporated lodges temporarily in the soil and earth. It is estimated that the ground water to the depth of 100 feet averages 16 2-3 per cent of the earth-volume, or over 1,400,000,000,000,000 cubic feet, equivalent to seven years' rainfall or twenty years' run-off. This subsurface reservoir is the essential basis of agriculture and other industries and is the chief natural resource of the country. It sustains forests and all other crops and supplies the perennial springs and streams and wells used by four-fifths of our population and nearly all our domestic animals. Its quantity is diminished by the increased run-off due to deforestation and injudicious farming. Although the volume of the available ground water is subject to control by suitable treatment of the surface, little effort has been made to retain or increase it, and it is probable that fully 10 per cent of this rich resource has been wasted since settlement began. The water of the strata below 100 feet supplies artesian and deep wells, large springs, and thermal and mineral waters. It can be controlled only through the subsurface reservoir.

Of the 35,000,000,000,000 cubic feet of cut-off, the chief share is utilized by natural processes or by agriculture and related industries. On an average the plant tissue of annual growths is three-fourths and of perennial growths three-eights water; of human and stock food over 80 per cent is water, and in animal tissue the ratio is about the same; and since water is the medium for organic circulation, the plants and animals of the country yearly require an amount many times exceeding their aggregate volume. Even in the more humid sections of the country the productivity of the soil and the possible human population would be materially increased by a greater rainfall, leaving a larger margin for organic and other chemical uses. Except through

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agriculture and forestry little general effort is made to control the annual cut-off, although some farmers in arid regions claim to double or triple the crop from given soil by supplying water just when needed and withholding it when not required.

Water is like other resources in that its quantity is limited. It differs from such mineral resources as coal and iron, which once used are gone forever, in that the supply is perpetual, and it differs from such resources as soils and forests, which are capable of renewal or improvement, in that it can not be augmented in quantity, though like all other resources it can be better utilized.

### NEED OF COMPREHENSIVE PLANS

It is now recognized by statesmen and experts that navigation is interdependent with other uses of the streams; that each stream is essentially a unit from its source to the sea; and that the benefits of a comprehensive system of waterway improvement will extend to all the people in the several sections and States of the country.

It is also recognized, through the unanimous declaration of the governors of the States and Territories adopted in conference with the leading jurists and statesmen and experts of the country, that in the use of the natural resources the independent States are interdependent, and bound together by ties of mutual benefits, responsibilities, and duties.

It has recently been declared by a majority of our leading statesmen that it is an imperative duty to enter upon systematic improvement, on a large and comprehensive plan, just to all portions of the country, of the waterways and harbors and great lakes, whose natural adaptability to the increasing traffic of the land is one of the greatest gifts of a benign Providence, while the minority indorsed the movement for control of the waterways still more specifically and in equally emphatic terms.

Within recent months it has been recognized and demanded by the people, through many thousands of delegates

from all States assembled in convention in different sections of the country, that the waterways should and must be improved promptly and effectively as a means of maintaining national prosperity.

The first requisite for waterway improvement is the control of the waters in such a manner as to reduce floods and regulate the regimen of the navigable rivers. The second requisite is development of terminals and connections in such manner as to regulate commerce.

In considering the uses and benefits to be derived from the waters, the paramount use should be water supply; next should follow navigation in humid regions and irrigation in arid regions. The development of power on the navigable and source streams should be coordinated with the primary and secondary uses of the waters. Other things equal, the development of power should be encouraged, not only to reduce the drain on other resources, but because properly designed reservoirs and power plants retard the run-off and so aid in the control of the streams for navigation and other uses.

Broad plans should be adopted providing for a system of waterway improvement extending to all uses of the waters and benefits to be derived from their control, including the clarification of the water and abatement of floods for the benefit of navigation; the extension of irrigation; the development and application of power; the prevention of soil wash; the purification of streams for water supply; and the drainage and utilization of the waters of swamp and overflow lands.

To promote and perfect these plans scientific investigations, surveys, and measurements should be continued and extended, especially the more accurate determination of rainfall and evaporation, the investigation and measurement of ground water, the gauging of streams and determination of sediment, and topographic surveys of catchment areas and sites available for control of the waters for navigation and related purposes.

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## VII. National Efficiency

Since the greatest of our national assets is the health and vigor of the American people, our efficiency must depend on national vitality even more than on the resources of the minerals, lands, forests, and waters.

The average length of human life in different countries varies from less than twenty-five to more than fifty years. This span of life is increasing wherever sanitary science and preventive medicine are applied. It may be greatly extended.

Our annual mortality from tuberculosis is about 150,000. Stopping three-fourths of the loss of life from this cause, and from typhoid and other prevalent and preventable diseases, would increase our average length of life over fifteen years.

There are constantly about 3,000,000 persons seriously ill in the United States, of whom 500,000 are consumptives. More than half this illness is preventable.

If we count the value of each life lost at only $1,700 and reckon the average earnings lost by illness as $700 per year for grown men, we find that the economic gain from mitigation of preventable disease in the United States would exceed $1,500,000,000 a year. In addition, we would decrease suffering and increase happiness and contentment among the people. This gain, or the lengthening and strengthening of life which it measures, can be secured through medical investigation and practice, school and factory hygiene, restriction of labor by women and children, the education of the people in both public and private hygiene, and through improving the efficiency of our health service, municipal, state, and national. The National Government has now several agencies exercising health functions which only need to be concentrated to become coordinated parts of a greater health service worthy of the nation.

The inventory of our natural resources made by your commission, with the vigorous aid of all federal agencies concerned, of many States, and of a great number of as-

sociated and individual cooperators, furnishes a safe basis for general conclusions as to what we have, what we use and waste, and what may be the possible saving. But for none of the great resources of the farm, the mine, the forest, and the stream do we yet possess knowledge definite or wide enough to insure methods of use which will best conserve them.

### MORE COMPLETE INVENTORY NEEDED

In order to conserve a natural resource, we must know what that resource is by taking stock of what we have. We greatly need a more complete inventory of our natural resources; and this can not be made except through the active cooperation of the States with the nation.

The permanent welfare of the nation demands that its natural resources be conserved by proper use. To this end the State and the Nation can do much by legislation and example. By far the greater part of these resources is in private hands. Private ownership of natural resources is a public trust; they should be administered in the interests of the people as a whole. The States and Nation should lead rather than follow in the conservative and efficient use of property under their immediate control. But their first duty is to gather and distribute a knowledge of our natural resources and of the means necessary to insure their use and conservation, to impress the body of the people with the great importance of the duty, and to promote the cooperation of all. No agency, state, federal, corporate, or private, can do the work alone.

Finally, the conservation of our resources is an immediate and vital concern. Our welfare depends on conservation. The pressing need is for a general plan under which citizens, States, and nation may unite in an effort to achieve this great end. The lack of coöperation between the states themselves, between the States and nation, and between the agencies of the National Government, is a potent cause of the neglect of conservation among the people.

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An organization through which all agencies, state, national, municipal, associate, and individual, may unite in a common effort to conserve the foundations of our prosperity is indispensable to the welfare and progress of the nation. To that end the immediate creation of a national agency is essential. Many States and associations of citizens have taken action by the appointment of permanent conservation commissions. It remains for the nation to do likewise, in order that the States and the nation, associations and individuals, may join in the accomplishment of this great purpose.

Accompanying this report, and transmitted as a part thereof, are detailed statements by the secretaries of the several sections, and many papers and illustrations prepared by experts at the request of your commission.

GIFFORD PINCHOT, *Chairman.*
W. J. MCGEE,
*Secretary, Section of Waters.*
OVERTON W. PRICE,
*Secretary, Section of Forests.*
GEORGE W. WOODRUFF,
*Secretary, Section of Lands.*
J. A. HOLMES,
*Secretary, Section of Minerals.*

THOMAS B. SHIPP,
*Secretary to the Commission.*

*December 7,* 1908.

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# Joint Committee on Conservation

## A Clearing House for the Various Agencies at Work in the Conservation Movement

THE Joint Committee on Conservation is now directing the conservation movement in the United States. It is carrying on the identical work which the National Conservation Commission was doing prior to the adoption of the Tawney amendment to the Sundry Civil Act. Up to that time, March 4, the National Commission had carried on its work of cooperation with the assistance of the various branches of the executive departments of the Government. The Tawney amendment prohibited the detail of any Government employe to the work of any commission not authorized by Congress. Thus it was made impossible for the National Commission to continue its work under the Government.

President Taft has expressed his desire that the National Conservation Commission continue and his intention to ask Congress to make an appropriation for it. Until an appropriation can be made, the Joint Committee on Conservation will stand as the recognized official head of cooperative conservation work on the part of the States and national organizations.

### PERSONNEL OF JOINT COMMITTEE

Its membership and organization is as follows:

George C. Pardee, California; Knute Nelson, Minnesota; W. H. Milton, Florida; W. K. Kavanaugh, Missouri; Newton C. Blanchard, Louisiana; Paris Gibson, Montana; B. N. Baker, Maryland; J. N. Teal, Oregon; O. J. Salisbury, Utah. Gifford Pinchot, Chairman; Thomas R. Shipp, Secretary.

At its meeting, March 5, the Joint Committee on Conservation decided to establish an office in Washington and to take up at once and carry on vigorously the work of cooperation among the States and national associations which

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the National Conservation Commission had been doing prior to the adoption of the Tawney amendment to the Sundry Civil Bill.

Accordingly, the Joint Committee has opened offices at the Wyatt Building, 14th and F streets, which will be regarded as headquarters for the work on cooperation among the State commissions and organization committee until such time as the National Conservation Commission by authority of Congress may go on with its work.

Conservation work in the branches of the Executive Departments of the Government along their respective lines is in no way hampered by the amendment to the Sundry Civil Act. The Joint Committee will keep in closest touch with this work, with a view to seeing that all cooperating agencies shall receive any needful advice or assistance in making investigations or in preparing plans for the practical application of the principles of conservation to definite problems.

Thus far, the conservation movement has been largely and necessarily educational, in order that there might be a general understanding of just what conservation means. But now the practical application of conservation principles has begun and from now on practical work in the several States will engage the attention of the Joint Committee.

As the central authorized agency through which the thirty-seven State conservation commissions and the forty-seven conservation committees of national organizations are cooperating, the Joint Committee already has a great work under way. It is virtually a conservation clearing house, by means of which the conservation bodies of the State and national organizations are kept in close touch with one another. But while its work is largely with organized conservation bodies, the Joint Committee is equally ready to advise any individual or any organization which may not have a conservation committee as to the best means of cooperation in the Conservation movement.

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# North American Conservation Conference

## Held in Washington, February, 1909, by Delegates from Canada, Mexico, and the United States

AS an outgrowth of the Joint Conservation Conference in December, 1908, a letter of invitation to Canada and Mexico to join with the United States in a North American Conservation Conference was on December 24, 1908, written by President Roosevelt. It was conveyed in person to Lord Grey and Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Governor-General and Premier of the Canadian Government, and to President Diaz of Mexico, by Gifford Pinchot, Chairman of the National Conservation Commission, whom the President selected for this duty. The invitation was extended to the Colony of Newfoundland. The letter as addressed to Lord Grey follows:

THE WHITE HOUSE, *December* 24, 1908.

MY DEAR LORD GREY:

In May of the present year the Governors of the several States and Territories of this Union met in the White House to confer with the President and with each other concerning the amount and condition of the natural resources of this country, and to consider the most effective means for conserving them. This conference included also members of the Supreme Court, the Cabinet, and members of both Houses of Congress, together with representatives of the great associations of citizens concerned with natural resources. The conference was followed by the appointment of conservation commissions on the part of the Nation and of a majority of the States.

A second conference of the National Commission with the Governors, the State commissions, and the conservation committee of the great associations has recently been held in this city. It was called to consider an inventory of our natural resources prepared by the National Conservation Commission. Its most important result will doubtless appear


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in cooperation on the part of the Nation, the States, and the great associations of citizens for action upon this great question, upon which the progress of the people of the United States obviously depends.

It is evident that natural resources are not limited by the boundary lines which separate nations, and that the need for conserving them upon this continent is as wide as the area upon which they exist. In view, therefore, of these considerations, and of the close bonds of friendship and mutual aims which exist between Canada and the United States, I take especial pleasure in inviting you to designate representatives of the Government of Canada to meet and consult with representatives of the State and other departments of this Government, and the National Conservation Commission, in the city of Washington on February 18, 1909. The purpose of the conference I have the honor to propose is to consider mutual interests involved in the conservation of natural resources, and in this great field deliberate upon the practicability of preparing a general plan adapted to promote the welfare of the Nations concerned.

I have this day addressed a similar invitation to the Republic of Mexico, expressing my hope that representatives of that Government also will be present and participate in the proposed conference on the conservation of the natural resources of North America.

The conclusions of such a conference, while wholly advisory in character, could hardly fail to yield important beneficial results, both in a better knowledge of the natural resources of each Nation on the part of the others and in suggestions for concurrent action for the protection of mutual interests related to conservation.

As my representative to convey to you this letter of invitation, and at your desire to consult with you concerning the proposed conference, I have selected an officer of this Government, Chief of the United States Forest Service and Chairman of the National Conservation Commission, whom I commend to your kind offices.

Sincerely yours, THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

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SESSIONS OF THE NORTH AMERICAN CONFERENCE.

On February 18 the visiting Commissioners representing the Canadian and Mexican Governments (the delegate from Newfoundland having been delayed) were received by the President in the East Room of the White House in the presence of members of the Cabinet, the British Ambassador, the Mexican Charge d'Affaires, members of the National Conservation Commission, and chiefs of the Government bureaus and experts who contributed to the inventory of natural resources made by the Commission.

The personnel of the Conference was as follows:

Gifford Pinchot, Robert Bacon, James Rudolph Garfield, Commissioners representing the United States; Sydney Fisher, Clifford Sifton, Henri S. Béland, Commissioners representing the Dominion of Canada; Rómulo Escobar, Miguel A. de Quevedo, Carlos Sellerier, Commissioners representing the Republic of Mexico; E. H. Outerbridge, Commissioner Representing the Colony of Newfoundland; Robert E. Young, Thomas R. Shipp, Secretaries of the Conference.

After a session continuing through five days the Conference united in the following Declaration of Principles:

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES.

We recognize the mutual interests of the Nations which occupy the Continent of North America and the dependence of the welfare of each upon its natural resources. We agree that the conservation of these resources is indispensable for the continued prosperity of each Nation.

We recognize that the protection of mutual interests related to natural resources by concerted action, without in any way interfering with the authority of each Nation within its own sphere, will result in mutual benefits, and tend to draw still closer the bonds of existing good will, confidence, and respect. Natural resources are not confined by the boundary lines that separate Nations. We agree that no Nation acting alone can adequately conserve them, and we recommend the

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adoption of current measures for conserving the material foundations of the welfare of all the Nations concerned, and for ascertaining their location and extent.

We recognize as natural resources all materials available for the use of man as means of life and welfare, including those on the surface of the earth, like the soil and the waters; those below the surface, like the minerals; and those above the surface, like the forests. We agree that these resources should be developed, used, and conserved for the future, in the interests of mankind, whose rights and duties to guard and control the natural sources of life and welfare are inherent, perpetual, and indefeasible. We agree that those resources which are necessaries of life should be regarded as public utilities, that their ownership entails specific duties to the public, and that as far as possible effective measures should be adopted to guard against monopoly.

* * * * * * *

### CONSERVATION COMMISSIONS

The action of the President of the United States in calling this first conference to consider the conservation of the natural resources of North America was in the highest degree opportune, and the proceedings which have followed, and the information mutually communicated by the representatives assembled, have, we believe, been conducive to the best interests of the countries participating. To derive the greatest possible benefit from the work which has already been done, and to provide proper and effective machinery for future work, there should be established in each country a permanent Conservation Commission.

When such Conservation Commissions have been established a system of intercommunication should be inaugurated, whereby, at stated intervals, all discoveries, inventions, processes, inventories of natural resources, information of a new and specially important character, and seeds, seedlings, new or improved varieties, and other productions which are of value in conserving or improving any natural

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resource shall be transmitted by each Commission to all of the others, to the end that they may be adopted and utilized as widely as possible.

WORLD CONSERVATION CONFERENCE

The conference of delegates, representatives of the United States, Mexico, Canada, and Newfoundland, having exchanged views and considered the information supplied from the respective countries, is convinced of the importance of the movement for the conservation of natural resources on the continent of North America, and believes that it is of such a nature and of such general importance that it should become worldwide in its scope, and therefore suggests to the President of the United States of America that all Nations should be invited to join together in conference on the subject of world resources and their inventory, conservation, and wise utilization.

GIFFORD PINCHOT,
ROBERT BACON,
JAMES RUDOLPH GARFIELD,
*Commissioners Representing the United States.*

SYDNEY FISHER,
CLIFFORD SIFTON,
HENRI S. BELAND,
*Commissioners Representing the Dominion of Canada.*

ROMULO ESCOBAR,
MIGUEL A. DE QUEVEDO,
CARLOS SELLERIER,
*Commissioners Representing the Republic of Mexico.*

E. H. OUTERBRIDGE,
*Commissioner Representing the Colony of Newfoundland.*

ROBERT E. YOUNG,
THOMAS R. SHIPP,
*Secretaries of the Conference.*

WASHINGTON, D. C., *February* 23, 1909.

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# World Conservation Conference

## A World Wide Movement Suggested by President Roosevelt

As a development of the Conference of Governors, and later the North American Conservation Conference, President Roosevelt in February last invited a World Conservation Conference. His letter, addressed to forty-five nations was as follows:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *February* 19, 1909.

SIR: There is now assembled in Washington, in response to the invitation of the President, a conference of representatives of the United States of Mexico and of the Dominion of Canada to meet the representatives of the United States of America for the purpose of considering the common interests of the three countries in the conservation of their natural resources. The cordiality with which the neighboring governments accepted the invitation is no less an augury of the success of this important movement than is the disposition already shown by the conference to recognize the magnitude of the question before them. While recognizing the imperative necessity for the development and use of the great resources upon which the civilization and prosperity of Nations must depend, the American Governments realize the vital need of arresting the inroads improvidently or unnecessarily made upon their natural wealth. They comprehend also that, as to many of their national resources, more than a merely conservative treatment is required; that reparatory agencies should be invoked to aid the processes of beneficient nature, and that the means of restoration and increase should be sought whenever practicable. They see that to the task of devising economical expenditure of resources, which, once gone, are lost forever, there should be superposed the duty of restoring and maintaining productiveness wherever impaired or menaced by wastefulness. In the northern part of the



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American hemisphere destruction and waste bring other evils in their train. The removal of forests, for instance, results in the aridity of vast tracts, torrential rainfalls break down and carry away the unprotected soil, and regions abundant in vegetable and animal life become barren. This is a lesson almost as old as the human race. The older countries of Europe, Africa, and the Orient teach a lesson in this regard which has been too little heeded.

Anticipating the wide interest which would naturally be aroused in other countries by the present North American Conference, the President foresaw the probability that it would be the precursor of a world congress. By an Aide-Memoire of the 6th of January last, the principal governments were informally sounded to ascertain whether they would look with favor upon an invitation to send delegates to such a conference. The responses have so far been uniformly favorable, and the Conference of Washington has suggested to the President that a similar general conference be called by him. The President feels, therefore, that it is timely to initiate the suggested World Conference for the Conservation of National Resources, by a formal invitation.

By direction of the President and with the concurrence of Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands, an invitation is extended to the Government of
to send delegates to a conference to be held at The Hague, at such date as may be found convenient, there to meet and consult the like delegates of the other countries, with a view to considering a general plan for an inventory of the natural resources of the world and to devising a uniform scheme for the expression of the results of such inventory to the end that there may be a general understanding and appreciation of the world's supply of the material elements which underlie the development of civilization and the welfare of the peoples of the earth. It would be appropriate also for the Conference to consider the general phases of the correlated problem of checking and,

when possible, repairing the injuries caused by the waste and destruction of natural resources and utilities, and make recommendations in the interest of their conservation, development, and replenishment.

With such a world inventory and such recommendations the various producing countries of the world would be in a better position to cooperate, each for its own good and all for the good of all, towards the safeguarding and betterment of their common means of support. As was said in the preliminary Aide-Memoire of January 6th:

"The people of the whole world are interested in the natural resources of the whole world, benefited by their conservation and injured by their destruction. The people of every country are interested in the supply of food and of material for manufacture in every other country, not only because these are interchangeable through processes of trade, but because a knowledge of the total supply is necessary to the intelligent treatment of each nation's share of the supply."

Nor is this all. A knowledge of the continuance and stability of perennial and renewable resources is no less important to the world than a knowledge of the quantity or the term remaining for the enjoyment of those resources which when consumed are irreplaceable. As to all the great natural sources of national welfare, the peoples of today hold the earth in trust for the peoples to come after them. Reading the lessons of the past aright, it would be for such a conference to look beyond the present to the future.

You will communicate the foregoing to the Government of with the expression of the President's hope that we may be soon informed of its acceptance of the invitation. You will at the same time inform His Excellency that upon informal inquiry a gratifying assurance of the sympathy of the Government of the Netherlands has been received.

I am, sir, Your obedient servant,

ROBERT BACON.

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# Statements by Men Prominent in National Affairs Upon the Subject of Conservation

*His Eminence Cardinal Gibbons.*

"No policy of our national Government is more in keeping with those democratic principles upon which our Republic is founded than the conservation of our natural resources, and none is to have a greater influence upon the future prosperity of our land. Our fertile soils, our inland waters, our mines, and our forests are God given heritages which belong no more to the present generation than to generations that are to come. It is our duty as American citizens to guard these resources as sacred trusts, to preserve them, and to use them wisely and with moderation, that we may as far as possible, provide against the days of want that are surely approaching; and that when those days are at hand they may not come as a crushing retribution, but as a wholesome discipline by which we shall be taught the great lessons of thrift and foresight."

*Elihu Root, Ex-Secretary of State, and U. S. Senator from New York.*

"The Nation can not perform the functions of the State sovereignties. If it were to undertake to perform those functions it would break down. The machinery would not be able to perform the duty. The pressure is already very heavy upon the national machinery to do its work. * * * It is high time that the sovereign States of the Union should begin to perform their duties with reference not only to their own individual interests, but with reference to the common good. * * I regard this meeting as marking a new departure, the beginning of an era in which the States of the Union will exercise their reserve sovereign powers upon a higher plane of patriotism and a love of country than has ever existed before."

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*James Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture.*

"When you speak practically of the destruction of a soil it means that you have taken away that part of the plant's food that comes from the atmosphere, and good farming means keeping the supply of that organic matter in the soil through which proper physical conditions may be maintained and moisture retained in dry times."

*James Garfield, Secretary of the Interior.*

"Why should a great resource, which is owned by the people at large, be used by private interests, by somebody that is looking only to his own profit, and not to the benefit of the people of the country? The people as a whole own these natural resources. They are not divided. But the people as a whole, I say, own them, and it is for them to determine whether those resources shall be used for the benefit of all, or shall be turned over to be used unregulated for the benefit of those who may perchance first get a foothold in any special locality. * * * In any law that is passed, in any theory of disposition that is adopted, we must look not only to their conservation and use, but we must look to the prevention of their monopolization, * * * in the hands of a few favored interests."

*William Jennings Bryan.*

"It should be our purpose, not only to preserve the Nation's resources for future generations by reducing waste to a minimum * * * we should see to it that a few people do not monopolize that which in equity is the property of all the people. The earth belongs to each generation, and it is as criminal to fetter future generations with perpetual franchises, making the multitude servants to a favored faction of the population, as it would be to impair, unnecessarily, the common store.

"Money spent in care for the life and health of the people, in protecting the soil from erosion and from exhaustion, in preventing waste in the use of materials and minerals of limited supply, in the reclamation of deserts and swamps, and in the preservation of forests still remaining

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and the planting of denuded tracts—money invested in these and in the development of waterways and in the deepening of harbors is an investment yielding an annual return. If any of these expenditures fails to bring in a return at once the money spent is like a bequest to those who come after us. And as the parent lives for his child as well as for himself, so the good citizen provides for the future as well as for the present. This gathering will be remembered by future generations because they as well as ourselves will be the recipients of the benefits which will flow from this conference. We have all been strengthened by communion together, our vision has been enlarged and the enthusiasm here aroused will permeate every State and every community."

*President Taft.*

"The conservation of natural resources is a subject to which the present Administration has given especial attention. The necessity for a comprehensive and systematic improvement of our waterways, the preservation of our soil and of our forests, the securing from private appropriation the power in navigable streams, the retention of the undisposed coal lands of the Government from alienation, all will properly claim from my Administration earnest attention and appropriate legislation.

"Without the resources which make labor productive, American enterprise, industry, energy, and skill would not in the past have been able to make headway against hard conditions. Our children and their children will not be able to make headway if we leave them an impoverished country. Our land, our forests, our waters, and our minerals are the sources from which come directly or indirectly the livelihood of all of us. The conservation of our natural resources is the question of fundamental importance to the United States."

*Andrew Carnegie.*

"We are nationally in the position of a large family receiving a rich patrimony from thrifty parents deceased in-

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testate. * * * Now, the first duty of such a family is to take stock of its patrimony; the next to manage the assets in such a manner that none shall be wasted, that all be put to the greatest good of the living and their descendants."
*James J. Hill.*

" 'Of all the sinful wastes of man's inheritance on earth,' said the late Professor Shaler, 'and all are in this regard sinners, the very worst are the people of America.' This is not a popular phrase, but a scientific judgment. It is borne out by facts. In the movement of modern times, which has made the world commercially a small place and has produced a solidarity of the race such as never before existed, we have come to a point where we must to a certain extent regard the natural resources of this planet as a common asset, compare them with demands now made and likely to be made upon them, and study their judicious use.

"Not only the economic but the political future is involved. No people ever felt the want of work or the pinch of poverty for a long time without reaching out violent hands against their political institutions, believing that they might find in a change some relief from their distress. * * * Every nation finds its hour of peril when there is no longer free access to the land, or when the land will no longer support the people."
*John Mitchell.*

"In our mad rush for spoils and profits we not only waste and destroy those material resources with which God has so bountifully endowed us, but we press forward in the race, sacrificing, unnecessarily, the lives and comfort of our fellow beings. It seems to me that the time has come when we should stop for a moment and think—not alone of these inanimate things that make for comfort and prosperity, but also of the men, and the women, and the children, whose toil and deprivation have made and will continue to make our country and our people the most progressive and most intelligent of all the nations and of all the peoples of the earth."

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*Governor Gooding, of Idaho.*

"We have built here a great nation, without a thought of tomorrow. We will grow still greater, even if we follow the same old methods that we followed in the past. But we cannot reach our full share of greatness as a nation unless, before it is too late, we throw safeguards around these resources that have made us the mightiest nation on the earth, so that they can be preserved and protected, that they may be developed to the greatest extent for the benefit of this and future generations."

*Governor Cutler, of Utah.*

"The great, broad principle underlying the subject of conservation is whether or not each succeeding generation can be sustained on the land without impoverishing it in any respect. Stated as a question it is, 'Will each generation have the land as rich as the preceding one?' It seems a simple question, and yet the safety and the lives of our children and our children's children will depend upon the answer. The forests, the streams, the soil, the minerals, and all the other natural elements of wealth should remain as nearly as possible undiminished as the centuries pass. All of this is in the hands of the people, with the possible reservation of the mineral wealth."

*Governor Mead, of Washington.*

"Our people are ready and willing to contribute from their revenues, from their means, to the conservation of all these interests. With that disposition, with an exalted patriotism among the people in favor of the perpetuation of these God given resources, I, for one, have no fear for the future of this great Republic and of its people."

*Dr. John B. Angell, President of the University of Michigan.*

"I think we may say that in the whole history of our country, so far as I can recall, there has never been an assemblage, since the one that gathered to frame the Constitution of the United States where such lofty interests were apparently considered with such a lofty patriotic spirit as seems to be manifested here today. I am sure that this will

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stand on record as a great historic event, and that you, and your children, will all be proud that you have been able to participate in it.

*Dr. Charles Van Hise, President of the University of Wisconsin.*

"Even the most sanguine calculations cannot hold out the hope that the available high grade ores of iron, copper, lead, zinc, gold, and silver, at the present rate of exploitation, will last for centuries into the future. And what are one or two centuries compared with the expected future of the life of the Nation?"

*Dr. I. C. White, State Geologist of West Virginia.*

"Just as sure as the sun shines and the sum of two and two is four unless this insane riot of destruction and waste of our fuel resources which has characterized the past century shall be speedily ended, our industrial power and supremacy will, after a meteor-like existence, revert before the close of the present century to those nations that conserve and prize at their proper value their priceless treasures of carbon."

*J. M. Dickinson, Secretary of War.*

"This seems to have been accepted as the most beneficient movement for the general welfare that has ever been inaugurated.

*John Hays Hammond.*

"The ever increasing rapidity of exploitation consequent upon the exigencies of modern engineering and economic practice inevitably leads to an alarming diminution of the lives—if I may use that term—of our mineral deposits. The culmination of our mining industry is to be reckoned in decades, and its declension (if not practically its economic exhaustion) in generations, not in centuries."

*James S. Whipple, State Forest, Fish, and Game Commissioner of New York.*

"The most imperative thing that we have to do in America today is to save the forests of the country."

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*William S. Harvey, President Board of Trustees of Philadelphia Commercial Museum.*

"If we want to prolong American prosperity and maintain the high level of American wages, our wage being double that of the other nations of the earth, we must protect our facilities and enlarge our ability to produce and manufacture the things that we manufacture at the lowest cost. * * * If we had no advantage in the marketing of our goods, either in excellence or quantity, or cheapness of production, it simply would mean that American labor would be reduced to the labor of all other nations of the world, and if we want to maintain this high level we must protect the facilities that will enable us to produce our goods at the very lowest possible cost."

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## WHERE NATIONAL RESERVATIONS ARE.

**One Hundred and Forty-eight Forests, the National Monuments within them, and the National Game Preserves—Showing what the Government has Done.**

The most complete statistics available regarding the amount and location of national reservations which have been made by the United States government is the following table issued March 10, 1909, by the Forest Service of the United States Department of Agriculture. It brings data down to February 28, 1909, and shows a total forest reservation of 189,828,156 acres as follows:

LOCATION AND AREA OF THE NATIONAL FORESTS IN THE UNITED STATES, ALASKA, AND PORTO RICO, AND DATES WHEN LATEST PROCLAMATIONS BECAME EFFECTIVE.

| Forest. | Headquarters of supervisor. | Proclamation effective. | Area. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | ARIZONA. | | *Acres.* |
| Apache | Springerville | July 1, 1908 | 1,302,711 |
| Chiricahua *a* | Douglas | July 2, 1908 | 287,520 |
| Coconino | Flagstaff | July 2, 1908 | 3,689,982 |
| Coronado | Benson | July 2, 1908 | 966,368 |
| Crook | Safford | July 1, 1908 | 788,624 |
| Dixie *b* | St. George, Utah | Feb. 10, 1909 | 626,800 |
| Garces | Nogales | July 2, 1908 | 644,395 |
| Kaibab | Kanab, Utah | July 2, 1908 | 1,080,000 |
| Prescott | Prescott | Feb. 1, 1909 | 1,541,762 |
| Sitgreaves | Snowflake | July 1, 1908 | 749,084 |
| Tonto | Roosevelt | Feb. 10, 1909 | 2,110,354 |
| Total | | | 13,787,600 |
| | ARKANSAS. | | |
| Arkansas | Mena | Feb. 27, 1909 | 1,663,300 |
| Ozark | Harrison | Feb. 25, 1909 | 1,526,481 |
| Total | | | 3,189,781 |
| | CALIFORNIA. | | |
| Angeles | Los Angeles | July 1, 1908 | 1,350,900 |
| California | Willows | Feb. 25, 1909 | 1,114,904 |
| Cleveland | San Diego | Jan. 26, 1909 | 2,236,178 |
| Crater *c* | Medford, Oreg | July 1, 1908 | 58,614 |
| Inyo *d* | Bishop | July 2, 1908 | 1,458,444 |
| Klamath | Yreka | Feb. 13, 1909 | 2,094,467 |
| Lassen | Red Bluff | July 2, 1908 | 1,209,298 |
| Modoc | Alturas | Feb. 25, 1909 | 1,471,817 |
| Mono *e* | Gardnerville, Nev. | July 2, 1908 | 658,106 |
| Monterey | Salinas | July 2, 1908 | 514,477 |
| Plumas | Quincy | July 2, 1908 | 1,354,158 |
| San Luis | San Luis Obispo | July 1, 1908 | 355,990 |
| Santa Barbara | Santa Barbara | July 1, 1908 | 2,027,180 |
| Sequoia | Hot Springs | July 2, 1908 | 3,051,782 |
| Shasta | Sisson | July 2, 1908 | 1,187,040 |
| Sierra | Northfork | July 2, 1908 | 1,935,680 |
| Siskiyou *f* | Grants Pass, Oreg. | July 1, 1908 | 37,814 |
| Stansilaus | Sonora | July 2, 1908 | 1,117,625 |

*a* Total of Chiricahua in Arizona and New Mexico equals 466,497 acres.
*b* Total of Dixie in Arizona and Utah equals 1,102,665 acres.
*c* Total of Crater in California and Oregon equals 1,119,834 acres.
*d* Total of Inyo in California and Nevada equals 1,521,017 acres.
*e* Total of Mono in California and Nevada equals 659,546 acres.
*f* Total of Siskiyou in California and Oregon equals 1,302,393 acres.



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| Forest | Headquarters of supervisor. | Proclamation effective. | Area. Acres. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tahoe *g* | Nevada City | July 2, 1908 | 1,595,982 |
| Trinity | Weaverville | July 2, 1908 | 1,753,033 |
| Total | | | 26,583,489 |
| | COLORADO. | | |
| Arapaho | Sulphur Springs | July 1, 1908 | 796,815 |
| Battlement | Collbran | July 1, 1908 | 753,720 |
| Cochetopa | Saguache | July 1, 1908 | 932,890 |
| Gunnison | Gunnison | July 1, 1908 | 945,350 |
| Hayden *h* | Encampment, Wyo. | July 1, 1908 | 84,000 |
| Holy Cross | Glenwood Springs | July 1, 1908 | 1,251,200 |
| La Salle *i* | Moab, Utah | July 2, 1908 | 29,502 |
| Las Animas *j* | La Veta | Mar. 1, 1907 | 196,140 |
| Leadville | Leadville | July 1, 1908 | 1,184,730 |
| Medicine Bow | Fort Collins | July 1, 1908 | 659,780 |
| Montezuma | Mancos | July 1, 1908 | 1,175,811 |
| Pike | Denver | July 1, 1908 | 1,457,524 |
| Rio Grande | Monte Vista | July 1, 1908 | 1,262,158 |
| Routt | Steamboat Springs | July 1, 1908 | 1,049,686 |
| San Isabel | Westcliffe | July 2, 1908 | 560,848 |
| San Juan | Durango | July 1, 1908 | 1,460,880 |
| Uncompahgre | Delta | July 1, 1908 | 921,243 |
| White River | Meeker | May 21, 1904 | 970,880 |
| Total | | | 15,693,157 |
| | FLORIDA. | | |
| Choctawhatchee | | Nov. 27, 1908 | 467,606 |
| Ocala | | Nov. 24, 1908 | 207,285 |
| Total | | | 674,891 |
| | IDAHO. | | |
| Beaverhead *a* | Dillon, Mont. | July 1, 1908 | 304,140 |
| Boise | Boise | July 1, 1908 | 1,147,360 |
| Cache *b* | Logan, Utah | July 1, 1908 | 276,640 |
| Caribou *c* | Idaho Falls | Jan. 15, 1907 | 733,000 |
| Challis | Challis | July 1, 1908 | 1,161,040 |
| Clearwater | Kooskia | July 1, 1908 | 2,687,860 |
| Coeur d'Alene | Wallace | July 1, 1908 | 1,543,844 |
| Idaho | Meadows | July 1, 1908 | 1,293,280 |
| Kaniksu *d* | Newport, Wash. | July 1, 1908 | 544,220 |
| Lemhi | Mackay | July 1, 1908 | 955,408 |
| Minidoka *e* | Oakley | July 2, 1908 | 619,204 |
| Nezperce | Grangeville | July 1, 1908 | 1,946,340 |
| Payette | Emmett | July 1, 1908 | 844,240 |
| Pend d'Oreille | Sandpoint | July 1, 1908 | 913,364 |
| Pocatello *f* | Pocatello | July 1, 1908 | 288,148 |
| Salmon | Salmon City | July 1, 1908 | 1,762,472 |
| Sawtooth | Hailey | July 1, 1908 | 1,211,920 |
| Targhee *g* | St. Anthony | July 1, 1908 | 1,101,720 |
| Weiser | Weiser | July 1, 1908 | 764,829 |
| Total | | | 20,099,029 |
| | KANSAS. | | |
| Kansas | Garden City | May 15, 1908 | 302,387 |
| Total | | | 302,387 |
| | MICHIGAN. | | |
| Marquette | | Feb. 10, 1909 | 30,603 |
| Michigan | | Feb. 11, 1909 | 132,770 |
| Total | | | 163,373 |

*g* Total of Tahoe in California and Nevada equals 1,653,657 acres.
*h* Total of Hayden in Colorado and Wyoming equals 454,911 acres.
*i* Total of La Salle in Colorado and Utah equals 474,130 acres.
*j* Total of Las Animas in Colorado and New Mexico equals 196,620 acres.
*a* Total of Beaverhead in Idaho and Montana equals 1,810,820 acres.
*b* Total of Cache in Idaho and Utah equals 533,840 acres.
*c* Total of Caribou in Idaho and Wyoming equals 740,740 acres.
*d* Total of Kaniksu in Idaho and Washington equals 950,740 acres.
*e* Total of Minidoka in Idaho and Utah equals 736,407 acres.
*f* Total of Pocatello in Idaho and Utah equals 298,868 acres.
*g* Total of Targhee in Idaho and Wyoming equals 1,479,320 acres.

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| Forest. | Headquarters of supervisor. | Proclamation effective. | Area. Acres. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | MINNESOTA. | | |
| Minnesota *h* | Cass Lake | May 23, 1908 | 294,752 |
| Superior | | Feb. 13, 1909 | 909,734 |
| Total | | | 1,204,486 |
| | MONTANA. | | |
| Absaroka | Livingston | July 1, 1908 | 980,440 |
| Beartooth | Red Lodge | July 1, 1908 | 685,293 |
| Beaverhead *i* | Dillon | July 1, 1908 | 1,506,680 |
| Bitterroot | Missoula | July 1, 1908 | 1,180,900 |
| Blackfeet | Kalispell | July 1, 1908 | 1,956,340 |
| Cabinet | Thompson Falls | July 1, 1908 | 1,020,960 |
| Custer | Ashland | July 2, 1908 | 590,720 |
| Deerlodge | Anaconda | July 1, 1908 | 1,080,220 |
| Flathead | Kalispell | July 1, 1908 | 2,092,785 |
| Gallatin | Bozeman | July 1, 1908 | 907,160 |
| Helena | Helena | July 1, 1908 | 930,180 |
| Jefferson | Great Falls | July 2, 1908 | 1,255,320 |
| Kootenai | Libby | July 1, 1908 | 1,661,260 |
| Lewis and Clark | Chouteau | July 1, 1908 | 844,136 |
| Lolo | Missoula | Nov. 6, 1906 | 1,211,680 |
| Madison | Sheridan | July 1, 1908 | 1,102,860 |
| Missoula | Missoula | July 1, 1908 | 1,237,509 |
| Sioux *j* | Camp Crook, S. Dak. | Feb. 15, 1909 | 145,253 |
| Total | | | 20,389,696 |
| | NEBRASKA. | | |
| Nebraska | Halsey | July 2, 1908 | 556,072 |
| Total | | | 556,072 |
| | NEVADA. | | |
| Humboldt | Elko | Jan. 20, 1909 | 1,158,814 |
| Inyo *k* | Bishop, Cal. | July 2, 1908 | 62,573 |
| Moapa | Las Vegas | Jan. 21, 1909 | 390,580 |
| Mono *l* | Gardnerville | July 2, 1908 | 1,440 |
| Nevada | | Feb. 10, 1909 | 1,222,312 |
| Tahoe *m* | Nevada City, Cal. | July 2, 1908 | 57,675 |
| Toiyabe | Austin | Feb. 20, 1909 | 1,678,714 |
| Total | | | 4,572,108 |
| | NEW MEXICO. | | |
| Alamo | Alamogordo | July 2, 1908 | 1,164,906 |
| Carson | Santa Fe | July 1, 1908 | 946,480 |
| Chiricahua *n* | Douglas, Ariz. | July 2, 1908 | 178,977 |
| Datil *o* | Magdalena | Feb. 23, 1909 | 2,869,888 |
| Gila | Silver City | Feb. 15, 1909 | 1,782,562 |
| Jemez | Santa Fe | July 1, 1908 | 944,085 |
| Las Animas *p* | La Veta, Colo. | Mar. 1, 1907 | 480 |
| Lincoln | Captitan | July 2, 1908 | 596,603 |
| Manzano | Albuquerque | Apr. 16, 1908 | 587,110 |
| Pecos | Santa Fe | Jan. 28, 1909 | 622,322 |
| Total | | | 9,693,413 |
| | NORTH DAKOTA. | | |
| Dakota | Camp Crook, S. Dak | Nov. 24, 1908 | 13,940 |
| Total | | | 13,940 |
| | OKLAHOMA. | | |
| Wichita | Cache | May 29, 1906 | 60,800 |
| Total | | | 60,800 |
| | OREGON. | | |
| Cascade | Eugene | July 1, 1908 | 1,767,370 |

*h* Minnesota National Forest created by act of Congress.
*i* Total of Beaverhead in Idaho and Montana equals 1,810,820 acres.
*j* Total of Sioux in Montana and South Dakota equals 249,653 acres.
*k* Total of Inyo in California and Nevada equals 1,521,017 acres.
*l* Total of Mono in California and Nevada equals 659,546 acres.
*m* Total of Tahoe in California and Nevada equals 1,653,657 acres.
*n* Total of Chiricahua in Arizona and New Mexico equals 466,497 acres.
*o* Datil includes 578,445 acres formerly known as Magdalena National Forest.
*p* Total of Las Animas in Colorado and New Mexico equals 196,620 acres.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Crater *a* | Medford | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,061,280 |
| Deschutes | Prineville | July | 14, | 1908 | 1,504,207 |
| Fremont | Lakeview | July | 14, | 1908 | 1,260,320 |
| Malheur | John Day | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,167,400 |
| Oregon | Portland | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,787,280 |
| Siskiyou *b* | Grants Pass | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,264,579 |
| Siuslaw | Eugene | July | 1, | 1908 | 821,794 |
| Umatilla | Heppner | July | 1, | 1908 | 540,496 |
| Umpqua | Roseburg | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,567,500 |
| Wallowa | Wallowa | July | 2, | 1908 | 1,750,240 |
| Wenaha *c* | Walla Walla, Wash | Mar. | 1, | 1907 | 494,942 |
| Whitman | Sumpter | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,234,020 |
| Total | | | | | 16,221,368 |

SOUTH DAKOTA.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Black Hills | Deadwood | Feb. | 15, | 1909 | 1,190,040 |
| Sioux *d* | Camp Crook | Feb. | 15, | 1909 | 104,400 |
| Total | | | | | 1,294,440 |

UTAH.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ashley *e* | Vernal | July | 1, | 1908 | 947,490 |
| Cache *f* | Logan | July | 1, | 1908 | 257,200 |
| Dixie *g* | St George | Feb. | 10, | 1909 | 475,865 |
| Fillmore | Beaver | July | 1, | 1908 | 578,459 |
| Fishlake | Salina | July | 2, | 1908 | 537,233 |
| La Salle *h* | Moab | July | 2, | 1908 | 444,688 |
| Manti | Ephraim | Apr. | 25, | 1907 | 786,080 |
| Minidoka *i* | Oakley, Idaho | July | 2, | 1908 | 117,203 |
| Nebo | Payson | July | 1, | 1908 | 343,920 |
| Pocatello *j* | Pocatello, Idaho | July | 1, | 1908 | 10,720 |
| Powell | Escalante | July | 2, | 1908 | 726,159 |
| Sevier | Panguitch | Jan. | 17, | 1906 | 710,920 |
| Uinta | Provo | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,250,610 |
| Wasatch | Salt Lake City | July | 2, | 1908 | 249,840 |
| Total | | | | | 7,436,327 |

WASHINGTON.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chelan | Chelan | July | 1, | 1908 | 2,492,500 |
| Columbia | Portland, Oreg | July | 1, | 1908 | 941,440 |
| Colville | Republic | Mar. | 1, | 1907 | 869,520 |
| Kaniksu *k* | Newport | July | 1, | 1908 | 406,520 |
| Olympic | Hoodsport | Mar. | 2, | 1907 | 1,594,560 |
| Rainier | Orting | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,641,280 |
| Snoqualmie | Seattle | July | 1, | 1908 | 961,120 |
| Washington | Bellingham | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,419,040 |
| Wenaha | Walla Walla | Mar. | 1, | 1907 | 318,400 |
| Wenatchee | Leavenworth | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,421,120 |
| Total | | | | | 12,065,500 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ashley | Vernal, Utah | July | 1, | 1908 | 4,596 |
| Bighorn | Big Horn | July | 2, | 1908 | 1,151,680 |
| Bonneville | Pinedale | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,627,840 |
| Caribou *l* | Idaho Falls, Idaho | Jan. | 15, | 1907 | 7,740 |
| Cheyenne | Saratoga | July | 1, | 1908 | 617,932 |
| Hayden *m* | Saratoga | July | 1, | 1908 | 370,911 |
| Shoshone | Cody | July | 1, | 1908 | 1,689,680 |
| Sundance | Sundance | July | 1, | 1908 | 183,224 |
| Targhee *n* | St. Anthony, Idaho | July | 1, | 1908 | 377,600 |

*a* Total of Crater in California and Oregon equals 1,119,834 acres.
*b* Total of Siskiyou in California and Oregon equals 1,302,393 acres.
*c* Total of Wenaha in Oregon and Washington equals 813,342 acres.
*d* Total of Sioux in Montana and South Dakota equals 249,653 acres.
*e* Total of Ashley in Utah and Wyoming equals 952,086 acres.
*f* Total of Cache in Idaho and Utah equals 533,840 acres.
*g* Total of Dixie in Arizona and Utah equals 1,102,655 acres.
*h* Total of La Salle in Colorado and Utah equals 474,130 acres.
*i* Total of Minidoka in Idaho and Utah equals 736,407 acres.
*j* Total of Pocatello in Idaho and Utah equals 298,868 acres.
*k* Total of Kaniksu in Idaho and Washington equals 950,740 acres.
*l* Total of Caribou in Colorado and Wyoming equals 740,740 acres.
*m* Total of Hayden in Colorado and Wyoming equals 454,911 acres.
*n* Total of Targhee in Idaho and Wyoming equals 1,479,320 acres.

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| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teton | Jackson | July | 1, 1908 | 1,991,200 |
| Wyoming | Afton | July | 1, 1908 | 976,320 |
| Total | | | | 8,988,723 |
| Total of 145 National Forests in the United States. | | | | 163,000,580 |
| ALASKA. | | | | |
| Chugach | Ketchikan | Feb. | 23, 1909 | 11,280,640 |
| Tongass | Ketchikan | Feb. | 16, 1909 | 15,480,986 |
| Total | | | | 26,761,626 |
| PORTO RICO. | | | | |
| Luquillo | | Jan. | 17, 1903 | 65,950 |
| Total | | | | 65,950 |
| Grand total of 148 National Forests | | | | 189,828,156 |

## NATIONAL MONUMENTS.

The following National Monuments situated within National Forests have been created under act of June 8, 1906 (34 Stat., 225), for the preservation of objects of historic or scientific interest:

| Name. | National Forest. | State. | Date. | Area. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cinder Cone | Lassen | California | May 6, 1907 | 5,120 |
| Gila Cliff-Dwellers | Gila | New Mexico | Nov. 16, 1907 | 160 |
| Grand Canyon | Coconino and Kaibab. | Arizona | Jan. 11, 1908 | 806,400 |
| Jewel Cave | Black Hills | South Dakota | Feb. 7, 1908 | 1,280 |
| Lassen Peak | Lassen | California | May 6, 1907 | 1,280 |
| Pinnacles | Monterey | California | Jan. 16, 1908 | 2,080 |
| Tonto | Tonto | Arizona | Dec. 19, 1907 | 640 |
| Wheeler | Cochetopa and Rio Grande. | Colorado | Dec. 7, 1908 | 300 |
| Total area of National Monuments within National Forests | | | | 817,260 |

## NATIONAL GAME PRESERVES.

The following National Game Preserves situated within National Forests have been designated for the protection of wild animals under special acts of Congress:

| Name. | National Forest. | State. | Act approved. | Proclamation effective. | *Acres.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grand Canyon. | Coconino and Kaibab. | Arizona | June 29, 1906 (34 Stat., 607). | June 23, 1908 | 2,019,008 |
| Wichita | Wichita | Oklahoma. | Jan. 24, 1905 (33 Stat., 614). | June 2, 1905 | 57,120 |

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## THE NEW FOUR YEARS' CYCLE.

Lamentations that the four years' course is nearly over are always in the air at this time of year. There is no experience quite like that of the first four years' course in the C. L. S. C. It is somewhat akin to a first trip to Europe, and yet the second trip abroad has a charm of its own. A certain bewilderment which characterized the first plunge into the Old World is gone, and the traveler has a sense of leisurely enjoyment and a critical appreciation of things which on the previous journey had rather overwhelmed him. So it comes to pass that he has a pleasant sense of being somewhat at home with his foreign kin, and he begins to discover new and deeper relationships which he had missed before. Much the same may be true of you as a C. L. S. C. student of the new four years just ahead. Your experience as an undergraduate has given you an entirely new outlook. As you enter upon the new cycle you will be conscious of a measure of confidence in yourself and a background of knowledge which will make you eager to live in a still larger world. The new four years will be different from the old, recast in new lines, for even a Classical Year is so rich in posibilities that a new approach to it is



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Banner of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1909—"The Dante Class."

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always feasible. During this next term of study you will go deeper into some things while exploring new and wider fields and will come to appreciate how the first four years were but the preparatory stage of a possible life career as a Chautauqua student.

### 1909'S BANNER AND CLASS POEM

Members of the Dante Class are to be congratulated upon their banner, which is a beautiful work of art. Its design has been the subject of many earnest discussions by the members of the Class at Chautauqua and those who are able to march behind their standard on Recognition Day this year or in years to come will be grateful to their classmates who have planned so well. The banner committee have fully lived up to their responsibilities. Mrs. T. R. Hill, the chairman, has devoted herself with enthusiasm to the supervision of the work, and her earnestness is typical of the spirit of the class. Her description of the banner will give to those who can not hope to see it some idea of its artistic qualities:

The dimensions of the banner of the Class of 1909 are thirty-four by fifty-four inches. The face and back of the banner are of ivory-white silk rep. The general color effect of the decorations is green, which, being on the white background, suggests the "class colors,"—green and white. The galloon that outlines the panels and edges the banner is of green silk of basket weave texture, ornamented with a braided design in cream colored cord. The side edges are finished by green guide cords with tasseled ends, and the fringe at the bottom is a heavy five-inch twist silk fringe green in color. The ribbon effect bearing the class motto is of satin hand applique, neutral in color, but contrasting sufficiently with its background to be visible from a distance. All the letters are of pale old gold satin hand applique edged with small cord of the same color. The grape vine, with its fruit and tendrils, symbolic of the class ideals, is hand embroidered in soft harmonious tones of green, violet, and brown silks. The back of the banner is paneled with one line of silk galloon, of the same design as that on the face, and the Chautauqua emblem in old gold satin is appliqued in the center. The pole and cross-bar of mahogany finish, the Florentine lily pole ornament, the chain and the cross-bar ends are of dull-finished brass, pale in color tone and especially designed to harmonize with the banner. The banner design was made by Mr. B. B. Hagadorn of the New York "Wanamaker Store," who also personally selected all the materials and superintended the details of manufacture.

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The Committee on the 1909 Class poem have decided on two of the sonnets forming Longfellow's introduction to the Divine Comedy. Those which have been selected are the second introductory sonnet to the Paradiso and the opening sonnet introducing the Inferno. The first beginning "O star of Morning and of liberty" expresses admirably the social effect of Dante's work upon Italy and incidentally upon the world. The second, "Oft have I seen at some cathedral door" describes the additional effect upon the individual. The closing lines of this sonnet are especially fine. They will be found in any collection of Longfellow's poems and will be printed in the Recognition Day Service.

Members of the Class who are planning to be present at Chautauqua will welcome the announcement that President Faunce of Brown University is to give the Recognition Day address.

### CIRCLES PLEASE NOTE

It is hoped that every circle will discuss and vote upon the question concerning Dutch masterpieces given in the suggested program for May 20-27 (see April CHAUTAUQUAN page 301.) Each circle will please request its secretary to send a report of the decision to the Round Table Editor, Chautauqua, New York.

### '89's VICENNIAL.

Among the well established anniversaries celebrated by Chautauqua classes from year to year are the vicennials. A strong sense of comradeship is developed among members who come to Chautauqua twenty years after graduation, some of them for the first time; and the enthusiasm of these gatherings shows how the college spirit is fostered by the four years of the C. L. S. C. This summer "The Argonauts" of the Class of '89 will recall the days when they set forth on their famous voyage. They are hoping to

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meet many of their old comrades. The following letter has been sent out widely to members of the class, but after the changes of the years connection with many has been lost so that the aid of members in reporting addresses of classmates will be appreciated:

*Dear Classmates*:

On the tenth anniversary of the '89 Class interesting services were held in the class rooms in Alumni Hall with a prepared program which included a history of the class in the organized circles in Japan and South Africa. At this celebration the class purchased and had framed a handsome frieze of Sargent's Prophets as a gift for the Hall of the Christ. This picture will be hung in that Hall for the first time in 1909.

When the new Hall of Philosophy was built, through the large generosity of Mrs. Jennie R. Hawes, the class was enabled to pay $300 for one of the columns or pillars. Later through the gift of $250 from Mrs. Charles Douglas of New York City, the class contributed one of the Athenian Lamps for the Watch Fires. These lamps are lighted when the Hall of Philosophy is used at night for C. L. S. C. exercises.

For the twentieth anniversary it is proposed to put into the floor of the Hall of Philosophy one of the Mosaic Tablets for which space was left when the Hall was built. These tablets have the name of the class and the emblem and cost $100 each. It was the sense of the officers and members present at Chautauqua in 1908 that steps should be taken to revive in every member of the '89 Class a renewed loyalty to Chautauqua and the far reaching influence of the Reading Circles of the C. L. S. C.

This letter is sent you to further this end and you are earnestly urged to do one or all of two following things:

Come to Chautauqua for Recognition Day in 1909.

Send some contribution, however small, for the tablet.

Or at least send a greeting to the class for the meetings in 1909.

A printed program of the twentieth anniversary exercises will be prepared and sent to you early in the summer. If you know of any member you can reach, will you kindly send a letter to the same and report the name to the secretary. Address all communications to the secretary and treasurer,

Miss E. Louise Savage,
27 Rowley St., Rochester, N. Y.

HOW THE COURSE IMPRESSES SOME 1909'S.

From Missouri: "I have read alone, and yet not alone for I am sure I have read fully half of the four years' reading aloud to my mother and sister, and then we would discuss the subject afterwards. My method of study has varied somewhat. The first year I did the reading as outlined in the magazine, and at the end of the year reviewed the books and did the written work. The second year owing to sickness in the family I found I could not do the

reading as outlined and I have taken it up whenever it was most convenient. This year I have read the books one at a time, then re-read them, answering the review questions and doing the written work before beginning another one, and I believe I have got more out of the books in this way. I shall always be an enthusiastic Chautauquan. The reading has so widened my horizon making life more wonderful and beautiful. I never before so fully realized 'the joy of living,' and I am sure that I owe much to Chautauqua for this changed outlook on life."

FROM CALIFORNIA: "I gained a great deal in the English year in the study of Shakespeare. I was then a member of a fine circle, and Shakespeare was explained in a way that was both instructive and entertaining. I had never thought it so before but I have since added his complete works to my stock of books."

FROM NEW YORK: "It is a great pleasure to send you a brief report of my four years' work. I am a genuine lone reader, and words fail to express what Chautauqua has been to me.....Each month the arrival of THE CHAUTAUQUAN is like that of a friend. Everything has to stop while I look it through. I always think of the Classical year as a little the best, but all have been so interesting. I am planning to be at Chautauqua this summer and am anticipating my graduation as the event of my life."

FROM CALIFORNIA: "I think I have received more benefit from 'A History of Greek Art' because in my college course I was obliged to substitute for it on account of conflicting studies. Have especially enjoyed the articles on art throughout the four years. Last May our Circle visited the art exhibit at Carnegie Library where we had an opportunity to see many of the pictures referred to in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Outside of the required course I have read Browning's Works, 'The Marble Faun,' 'Prescott's Conquest of Peru,' 'Sir Roger de Coverley Papers,' 'Main Traveled Roads,' 'Silas Marner,' 'The Making of an American,' 'The Man Without a Country,' and many others."

## THE C. L. S. C. AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY.

Chautauqua readers everywhere find the public library a strong ally in their work. The editor recalls with pleasure an evening with a circle in Cleveland where all gathered about a big table in a cozy room in the library building and were supplied with reference books bearing upon the work assigned. Many other circles have a like privilege. Those who do not meet in a library and so have access to reference books can draw books which circulate and bring them to the circle meeting. It is a good thing to get acquainted even with the exterior of a book, and be able to know where to turn when we want to enlarge our experience still further. For this reason members are urged to surround themselves with literature bearing upon the course even though it may be unwise and perhaps humanly impossible to attempt to read all the books suggested. Nevertheless the privilege of "browsing" through a library is one to be coveted greatly, and it is well to develop the habit.

## CO-OPERATION WITH THE LIBRARY.

Every Chautauquan may be of service to the librarian. First, see that your librarian has early in the year the list of books bearing on the new year's work, sent out in the spring by the C. L. S. C. office. Such a list is given below. It was mailed some weeks ago to all circles and to such individual readers as applied for it. Most librarians are very glad to give Chautauqua readers all possbile aid by purchasing books. Moreover the library is permanently enriched by books of this character. Librarians study the needs of the community, and Chautauquans by creating a demand for certain books, add to the resources of the general reading public. Second, it is possible to help the librarian in educating the public to read the best books, for this is one of the chief functions of a public library. Let the circle suggest to the librarian that, if not permanently, at least through September and October, a "Chautauqua Shelf" be installed in the library in a place where it will attract attention. In one section of the shelf display the four required books and the September and October CHAUTAUQUANS, with circulars of the C. L. S. C. and in the other section books in the library bearing upon the course for the coming year. Such a display would invariably attract attention. At the same time a committee from the circle could see that frequent references to the Chautauqua shelf were made in the daily papers. It would be well to emphasize the value of the course to individual readers whether members of a circle or not, showing the simplicity of the plan, and at the same time the wealth of interesting books with which the reader would enjoy becoming acquainted. Such a plan would do much to introduce the C. L. S. C. course into many homes.

## C. L. S. C. SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS FOR 1909-10.

In the following list a number of additions will be found under the first group, which were not given in the preliminary circular. Any book not marked "net" sent postpaid for price named. On "net" books add 8 per cent. to price given. Send to Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York.

**(a) Woman in the Progress of Civilization:**

*A History of Matrimonial Institutions*, George Elliot Howard—3 vols., $10.00. *Origin of Civilization*, Sir John Lubbock—$5.00. *The Primitive Family*, C. Starcke—$1.75. *Human Marriage*, E. Westermarck—$4.50 *net*. *The Ascent of Man*, Henry Drummond—$1.00. *The Evolution of Marriage and of the Family*, Charles Letourneau (Contemp. Science Series)—$1.50. *Woman's Share in Primitive Culture*, O. T. Mason—$1.75. *The Family*, Helen Bosanquet—$2.75 *net*. *On Liberty: The Subjection of Women*, John Stuart Mill—$2.00. *The Rights of Women*, M. Ostrogorski—$1.00. *The Greek View of Life*, G. Lowes Dickinson—$1.00. *Social Life*

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*at Rome,* W. Warde Fowler—$2.00. *Sex and Society,* W. I. Thomas —$1.50. *Woman Through the Ages,* Emil Reich—$6.50. *The Women of the Nations,* by various writers—$12.00 *net. Ancient Society,* Lewis H. Morgan—$4.00, a cheaper edition $1.50. *Primitive Civilizations; or, Outlines of the History of Ownership in Archaic Communities,* Miss E. J. Simcox,—2 vols., $10.00. *Kinship Organizations and Group Marriage in Australia,* Northcote W. Thomas—$1.50. *The Golden Bough,* J. G. Frazer—5 vols. *Slavery as an Industrial System,* Dr. H. J. Nieboer—$3.00. *Prolegomena to the Study of Greek Religion,* Jane Ellen Harrison—$3.00.

**(b) Ancient Egypt:**

*A History of Egypt,* Breasted—$5.00 *net. Ancient Egyptians,* J. H. Breasted—$1.25 *net. Empire of Ptolemies,* J. P. Mahaffy—$3.50 *net. History of Egypt under Roman Rule,* Milne—$2.25. *Life in Ancient Egypt,* Erman, trans. by H. M. Tirard—$6.00 *net. Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians,* Wilkinson—3 vols., $8.00, 2 vols., $3.00. *A Handbook of Egyptian Religion,* Erman, trans, by A. S. Griffith—$3.00 *net. The Religion of the Ancient Egyptians,* Steindorff—$1.50 *net. The Book of the Dead,* Budge—3 vols., $15.00. *Egyptian Literature,* in "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature," Griffith—subscription. *Egyptian Tales,* Petrie (After Griffith and Maspero)—2 vols., $3.00. *Ancient Records of Egypt,* J. H. Breasted, 5 vols. Translation of all historical documents from the earliest times to the Persians—$15.00 *net. Egypt Through the Stereoscope—a Journey through the Land of the Pharaohs,* J. H. Breasted—$1.60. *History of Ancient Art, I, Egypt,* Perrot and Chipiez—2 vols., $15.00. *Egyptian Archaeology,* Maspero —$2.25. *The Monuments of Sudanese Nubia,* Breasted—paper 50c *net. Ten Years Digging in Egypt,* Petrie—$1.50. *Recent Research in Bible Lands,* Steindorff (ed. by Hilprecht)—$2.00. *Authority and Archaeology,* Griffith (ed. by Hogarth)—$5.00.

**(c) Medieval and Modern Egypt:**

*History of Egypt in the Middle Ages,* Stanley Lane-Poole—Vol. VI, $2.25. *Modern Egypt,* Earl of Cromer—$6.00 *net. An Account of the Manners and Customs of Modern Egyptians,* Lane—35c. *Cairo Fifty Years Ago,* Lane—$2.40. *Medieval Towns: The Story of Cairo,* Stanley Lane-Poole—$2.00. *My Winter on the Nile,* C. D. Warner—$2.00. *A Thousand Miles up the Nile,* Amelia B. Edwards—$2.00 and $4.00. *Lepsius' Letters from Egypt, Ethiopia and Sinai,* translated by B. Horner—$1.50 net. *The Thousand and One Nights,* commonly called *The Arabian Nights Entertainment,* Lane—$1.50. *Hypatia,* Charles Kingsley—$1.25, $1.50. *The Songs of an Egyptian Peasant,* Schaefer, translated by Frances H. Breasted—$1.00 *net.*

**(d) History of Architecture:**

*A History of Greek Art,* F. B. Tarbell—$1.00. *A Grammar of Greek Art,* Percy Gardner—$1.75 *net. The Monuments of Christian Rome,* Arthur L. Frothingham—preparing. *Apollo, the History of Art Throughout the Ages,* Solomon Reinach—$1.50 *net. Roman and Medieval Art,* W. H. Goodyear—50c, $1.00. *A History of Architecture in Italy from Constantine to the Renaissance,* Charles A. Cummings—2 vols., $7.50. *A Handbook of Architectural Styles,* A. Rosengarten (from the German)—$6.35; $2.50 extra for illustrations. *The Architecture of Greece and Rome,* Anderson & Spiers—$7.50. *Architecture for General Readers,* H. H. Statham—$2.00. *History*

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*of Architecture,* Banister Fletcher—$7.50. *Character of Renaissance Architecture,* Charles H. Moore—$3.00 *net. Development and Character of Gothic Architecture,* Charles H. Moore—$4.50 net. *How to Judge Architecture,* Russell Sturgis—$1.50 *net.*

**(e) The Greek View of Life:**

*A History of Greece,* Botsford—$1.20 *net. Some Aspects of the Greek Genius,* S. H. Butcher—$2.50 *net. Harvard Lectures on Greek Subjects,* S. H. Butcher—$2.25 *net. From Homer to Theocritus,* Edward Capps—75c and $1.50. *Ideals in Greek Literature,* W. C. Lawton—$1.00. *Masterpieces of Greek Literature,* J. H. Wright—$1.00. *Home Life of the Ancient Greeks,* Blümer—$2.00. *Life in Ancient Athens,* T. G. Tucker—$1.25 *net. Classical Greek Literature,* R. C. Jebb—35c. *Studies in the Greek Poets,* J. A. Symonds—2 vols., $3.50. *The Ancient Classical Drama,* R. G. Moulton—$2.25. *Plato's Republic*—$1.50 *net. Plato's Best Thoughts,* translated by Jowett—$1.50. *A Day in Athens with Socrates,* Jowett —$1.00. *Social Life in Greece,* J. P. Mahaffy—$2.00 *net. Survey of Greek Civilization,* J. P. Mahaffy—$1.00 *net. The Gods in Greece,* Louis Dyer—$2.00. *The City-State of the Greeks and Romans,* W. Warde Fowler—$1.00 *net. Introduction to Classical Greek Literature,* Lawton—$1.20. *A History of Greek Art,* F. B. Tarbell— $1.00. *Home Life of the Ancient Greeks,* C. B. Gulick—$1.40.

**(f) The Homeric Stories:**

*Life in the Homeric Age,* Thomas Day Seymour—$4.00 *net. New Chapters in Greek History,* Percy Gardner—$5.00. *Excursions in Greece,* Charles Diehl—$3.00. *The Mycenaen Age,* Tsountas and Manatt—$6.00. *Schliemann's Discoveries,* Schuchhardt—$4.00. *Introduction to the Study of Homer,* R. C. Jebb—$1.12 *net. Homer and the Epic,* Andrew Lang—$2.50. *Companion to the Iliad,* Walter Leaf—$1.60 *net. Homeric Society,* A. G. Keller—$1.20. *Classic Myths in English Literature,* C. M. Gayley—$1.80. *Lessons from Greek Pottery,* Huddilston—$1.25 *net.*

**(g) Social Life at Rome:**

*The History of Rome,* Botsford—$1.10 *net. The Greatness and Decline of Rome,* Guglielmo Ferrero—$5.25 *net. The Private Life of the Romans,* H. W. Johnston—$1.50. *Roman Life in Pliny's Time,* Pellison—$1.00. *Ave Roma Immortalis,* F. Marion Crawford —2.50 *net. Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum,* Isabel Lovell —$1.50 and 50c. *Rome as Described by Great Writers,* Esther Singleton—$1.60 *net. Rome of Today and Yesterday,* John Dennie— $3.50. *Italy: Rome and Naples,* Taine—$2.50. *Roman Holidays and Others,* W. D. Howells—$3.00. *Walks in Rome,* A. J. C. Hare—2 vols., $2.50. *The City-State of the Greeks and Romans,* W. W. Fowler—$1.25 *net. Cicero and His Friends,* Boissier—$1.75. *The Roman Festivals of the Period of the Republic,* W. Warde Fowler—$1.25 *net. Cicero and His Friends,* Boissier—$1.75. *The City of Rome,* Dyer—$1.50. *Pompeii, Its Life and Art,* Mau—$2.50 *net. Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius,* Dill—$2.50 *net. Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome,* R. Lanciani—$4.00. *Destruction of Ancient Rome,* R. Lanciani—$1.50. *Roman Public Life,* A. H. J. Greenidge—$2.50 *net. Plutarch's Lives*—4 vols., each $1.00 *net;* 4 vols, 80c and $1.25 each; 3 vols., $1.00 each; 10 vols., 50c each, leather 75c each. *Greek World under Roman Sway,* J. P. Mahaffy— $3.00. *Literary Landmarks of Rome,* Laurence Hutton—$1.00. *Roman Education,* A. S. Wilkins—60c. *Ecce Homo,* J. R. Seeley—$1.00. *Roman Poets of the Republic,* Seller—$2.50. *History of Roman Lit-*

*erature,* W. S. Teuffel—2 vols., $4.50. *Lectures and Essays,* H. Nettleship—$1.90. *The Story of Rome as Greeks and Romans Tell It,* Botsford—90c *net.*

## ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JUNE READINGS.

1. A noted American lawyer and statesman, educated at Harvard. Elected U. S. Senator from Massachusetts in 1851. Became a leading opponent of slavery in Congress. Elected to Senate in 1857, '63, and '69; was a champion of the civil rights bill for the negroes. 2. A poet and essayist born at Boston June 10, 1818. Died at Concord, Mass., 1901. Nephew of Dr. W. E. Channing who was one of the chief founders of American Unitarianism. He was connected with various journals, published several volumes of poems. In prose, "Thoreau the Poet-Naturalist" and other works. 3. The repeal of the Corn laws. 4. Minister to Mexico in 1873-80, to Russia 1880-01, Minister to Spain 1883-5, Special Plenipotentiary to negotiate reciprocity treaties with Brazil, Spain, Germany, British West Indies. Secretary of State 1892-93, Agent of the United States in Behring Sea arbitration, invited by the Emperor of China to participate in peace negotiations with Japan. Ambassador on special mission to Great Britain and Russia 1897, Member Anglo-Canadian Commission 1898; Agent United States Alaskan Boundary Tribunal, London 1903. 5. Edward VII of England.

1. Het Loo in Gelderland. 2. The Nieuwe Kerk in Amsterdam. 3. The seven stadtholders of the Republic from William the Silent to William V. with their consorts and the three kings since 1813 and Queen Emma. 4. A court in The Hague surrounded by historic buildings associated with the greatest periods of Dutch history. 5. The execution of Barneveld and the massacre of the brothers De Witt. 6. One group bears the names of colonial possessions; another those of naval heroes and discoverers; poets, painters, and literary men in other groups, etc.

## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

"I'm delighted to see," remarked a member of the Round Table, "that we are to have 'The Friendly Stars' on our course next year. The movements of the stars have always been a puzzle to me and I've never seriously attempted to make the acquaintance of anything but the Big Dipper and the Pleiades. But I have often longed to be able to name my celestial neighbors and I realize that if Chautauqua tells me to study them, I shall obey, whereas otherwise I might wait for a more convenient season. I hope to get the books for next year and experiment with the stars this summer."

"It's so easy to forget that we live on a globe," said Pendragon, "that conditions south of the equator sometimes strike us with surprise. Let me read you this letter from Mr. Orton, secretary of a new circle of 1912's, written in March:

"'We are holding meetings from March to October, as it is too hot at Christmas time to meet, and in addition most people are

away on their holidays. We hold fortnightly meetings in private homes and are having our first meeting next Friday (March 12), so I shall be able to report our progress better after that. We are starting with the course as laid down by you for September, with Reich's book and the Friendship of Nations series.'"

"Let me remind you," said Pendragon, "to examine the bibliography in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Some of you will take long summer vacations and you will find it very stimulating to your interest in the Classical Year to begin reading around it. A preliminary acquaintance with the history of Egypt will get you into the right mood to enjoy next year's Reading Journey. Or some of the books on 'Women' will remind you how long she has been in the nature of a puzzle awaiting its solution. Or you can try a Greek play or two, reading them three or four times over till you begin to feel the charm which comes from familiarity. It is one of the most fascinating experiences to have a piece of great literature slowly unfold itself to you. Then be sure to tell others of the course and keep a good supply of circulars with you. Send some of them to your friends in far off mission fields. You'd be surprised to see if you look over our foreign list, how the globe is dotted over with Chautauqua readers.

"Last Fall you will remember," he continued, "that the business block at Chautauqua, including the Print Shop and the edition of the November CHAUTAUQUAN, were burned. At that time there was sent out from the Extension Office a paragraph which was widely copied in the press. It bore the significant heading, 'You Can't Burn Down an Idea.' This may be considered as typical of the Chautauqua point of view which prevails at the Institution Headquarters in winter as well as in summer. The Chautauqua community is small but it has ideas and spirit. The A. M. Martin Circle, named for the first general secretary of the C. L. S. C., prints its reports regularly in *The Chautauquan Weekly*, and the circle's reporter possesses a literary quality which enables him to portray situations and bring out the nature of discussions in very realistic fashion. One reader said that the reports gave her a better idea of the way in which a circle works than anything that she had read elsewhere. The point to be noted is, that a 'live' description of a circle meeting is better 'copy' for a newspaper than a mere statement of facts. A great many newspaper clippings come to headquarters but the reports are often very meager. It would be a fine exercise two or three times a year for a circle to have each member bring a vivid account of its last meeting. Let the report be limited to four hundred words and then give the best one to your local paper.

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"But we must ask the delegate from the circle at Chautauqua to give us an account of a very amusing experiment which they recently tried:" "It was a clever scheme of our president, Mrs. Day," explained the delegate. "She worked out what she called 'A Regulated Evening,' as a practical illustration of 'Seen in Germany.' 'Verboten' lists were conspicuously posted all about the room and fines of from one to five pfennigs designated for each offence. Six officers were each armed with a card containing the name of the offence which had been committed. This was to be shown to the culprit when arrested. A judge was appointed to act upon different cases, and legal talent could be obtained by paying the necessary pfennigs. Each person was provided at the outset with a number of pfennigs for payment of fines. But let me read you the report from *The Weekly* lest I forget something:

"'A novel idea, that of humorously exaggerating the German police regulations of personal matters, was carried out at the A. M. Martin Circle's extra meeting Thursday night. There was an official inquisitor, Mr. Charles Taylor, by his unofficial title, who asked of everybody present all manner of personal and irrelevant questions. When satisfied that he had got from an individual all the diverting answers to be had, he nodded approval and a passport was given, with enough make-believe coin of the realm to make a beginning. So the worst troubles of the victim seemed likely to have passed. Wherever he turned, however, he found large printed 'Verboten' signs bearing lists of things which all were enjoined from doing. These proved to be complicated and troublesome. Perhaps he did not notice, far down on the list, that standing was forbidden, until some officer swooped down upon him and summarily imposed a fine, without the formality of a trial. Five minutes afterward, he might be fined by another officer for sitting, as that also was proscribed somewhere in the list. That this was productive of amusement may easily be imagined.

"'A variation of the scheme was that whoever was fined not only had to part with some of his *pfennigs* (disks of bright colored paper, attached to a card) but he also became "it" and had to hunt down as victim some one else whom he could convict of the same offence for which he himself suffered. Each officer, it will be seen from the above, was empowered to deal with only one offence. This *verboten* scheme was operative during the whole evening, whenever there was any gap between other activities. The person who had most *geld* at the end held the honors, which fell to Mr. Russell, Mrs. Taylor being a strong competitor.'"

"I wonder if Bishop Vincent realized when he founded the C. L. S. C. how much better a four years' scheme is for us than a one-year course would have been?" The speaker explained that she was a music teacher and much interested in musical literature. "So I neglected other reading. The C. L. S. C. held me to the four years idea and now I realize how one-sided my interests were before." "It is important to remember," said Pendragon, "that the 'College Outlook' was the Chancellor's underlying purpose—not

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merely a reading course, but a broad scheme of self-culture founded on the college ideal, and adapted to the out-of-school reader."

"Our circle is a case in point," said a Canadian delegate from Brockville, Ontario. "Our society this year is in a flourishing condition and all eighteen members take a deep interest in the meetings and in the course of reading itself. In Brockville, which is a town of some 10,000 inhabitants, things are apt to go in 'spasms,' and even in sports everything flourishes for a year or two and great is the enthusiasm shown. Then comes the cooling off process and in a short time that particular club or sport is a thing of the past. Not so with the C. L. S. C. The club is twelve or thirteen years old, and that it still lives and is spoken of by its members with such enthusiasm speaks well for its success. We are enjoying this year's work very much indeed and many think that it is the most interesting year we have yet had. The programs are arranged by the Executive Committee and I believe they find the suggested programs in the magazine a very material help. Each girl undertakes her share of work very heartily. The lesson is not taught by one person, but several take part each week with papers, character sketches, oral reviews, and readings. We make the roll call quite important so that each may feel she is doing her part in making every meeting a good one. We meet in private houses every Monday evening at eight o'clock. We have not as yet had a critic. I am very glad to be able to report that ours is a live society and is recognized as such by our townspeople."

"We have twenty-two years' experience back of us, and this seems to be the best yet," added the delegate from Canandaigua, New York. "Our meetings are conducted most informally, with nothing to embarrass the most timid or diffident. Our work has been so divided this year that nearly every member has something to do. Two persons are responsible for the presentation of a Reading Journey through Holland, two for 'The Friendship of Nations,' two for 'Dutch Art and Artists.' Four persons gave 'Seen in Germany,' and nearly the whole circle is called into service in 'Studies in European Literature,' as each chapter is assigned to a different person. We feel an ever increasing interest in all that Chautauqua stands for."

"Our circle has had some interesting experiences with our current events part of the program," reported a Stamford, Connecticut, member. "One of our ministers reviewed for us with comments the article by Professor Münsterberg on 'Prohibition and Social Psychology' in *McClure's Magazine* and the reply published in a later number." The Fairfield, Connecticut, Circle delegate next gave a brief account of their Hugo-Molière evening in connection with the "Studies in European Literature."

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Pendragon referred to a report in a Pacific Coast paper calling attention to the social reunion of the three Chautauqua Circles of Pacific Grove for a Dickens celebration. "I notice also in another clipping," he said, "that the Chautauquans of Mt. Union, Ohio, have been making a special study of 'The Three Musketeers.'" "I haven't read 'the Three Musketeers' yet, though I mean to," remarked an Illinois member, but let me commend to you 'The Black Tulip,' by Dumas. I found it extremely interesting from two points of view: The vivid putting of events connected with the death of the De Witts in Holland and the Tulip craze, and the old fashioned romantic style which differs so strikingly from our modern methods."

"I should like to mention," said a Belfast, Maine, member, "a very interesting talk which we had from our librarian on the Rijks Museum at Amsterdam. She illustrated her talk with copies of the famous pictures to be found there. We feel especially indebted to our librarian for the help she has extended to our Circle in many ways."

"Our Circle is the Rembrandt," reported a member from Lebanon, Pa. "Most of us belong to the Class of 1912 and, of course, we take a special interest in Dutch Art because of our name or perhaps you'll say we took our name because of our Dutch proclivities. One of our most interesting meetings will at all events assure you that we have an affinity for biographies. In our studies of 'The Foundations of Modern Europe' we thought that a special evening upon some of the great men referred to by Professor Reich would be very illuminating. So we made a program, taking up Liszt, and Balzac, then a group of scientists: Darwin, Spencer, Comte, von Humboldt, and Lavoisier, and finally Cavour. We really felt quite proud of the program, for the papers all possessed a good deal of originality. We are greatly interested in our Dutch author Maarten Maartens and have given considerable attention to his work."

"As members of the 1911 Class, we feel that last year's work helped us a great deal for this year we seem to fall into our habits of study more naturally," commented the delegate from Karnes City, Texas. "There are only five of us, but we did very much enjoy Napoleon and 'Seen in Germany,' as all articles on the Dutch. We meet in private houses and each member in turn conducts the lesson. We hope to take the whole course, and at the end will quite likely begin all over again!"

A number of brief reports were next presented. The circle at Portland, Maine, with nine members has only one officer, a chairman. The members meet once a month and read aloud, "Nathan the Wise" being their first selection. The meetings design to bring the members together socially but all are doing the work at home. In Augusta, Georgia, the famous "Augusta Circle" is just coming of

age. It began twenty-one years ago, and hopes and expects to live twenty years longer. In Berlin, New York, with a dozen members, the circle believes in oral reports in general rather than papers. Informal discussions follow and unsettled questions are passed over to some one member for investigation. The meetings have been 'full of interest from start to finish and not an absentee except through illness.' At Perry, Iowa, the circle meets weekly in the public library. Current events are emphasized at roll call. New leaders are appointed each time and new ideas come to the front. Dutch Art and Artists has been especially enjoyed. A triangle of 1912's in Newport, R. I., have no critic and no teacher. But they have a full attendance at the meetings at the home of two of the members, who are sisters. Discussions are naturally very frank and they report the art and history as especially interesting. The Butler, Missouri, Chautauquans number nineteen, meeting weekly and carrying on their discussions under various leaders. The hostess of the Circle at Independence, Kansas, is always critic for the day, a plan especially practicable, for she has her own reference books always at hand. The twelve members meet in alphabetical order every Monday night and appreciate the spirit of comradeship which membership in the C. L. S. C. implies.

The Torrington, Connecticut, delegate modestly alluded to their meetings are 'very ordinary,' but the very practical programs manifolded so that all members could use them, indicated more than ordinary attention on the part of some one. "Our program," he said, "usually consists of one or two short papers, discussion of readings, etc. We have bi-weekly meetings at the homes of the members and are thoroughly enjoying the course. Practically all of our seventeen members take active part."

An Illinois 1910 member next presented the claims of the circle at Farmer City. "You will notice," she said, "from this little leaflet that our twenty-one members belong to the Gladstone Class. We have three officers and an executive committee, one member of which is the president, so the machinery is very simple. Each one of us has the experience of leadership during the year and we are all deeply interested. Our leaflet gives the names of the leaders for each month and also the places of meeting. So a member who chances to be absent does not lose track of things."

"One of the most successful of our larger circles," said Pendragon, "is that of Punxsutawney, Pennsylvania. It enrolls more than fifty members. We must hear from its president, Rev. C. W. Miner." "Our circle has carried through its work finely this winter, in fact we consider that we have had our most successful year. We have had beside regular reviews, music, papers, debates, and some interesting discussions. The circle is one of the institutions of the city and we try to enlarge its influence by inviting to our

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special lecture evenings the other literary clubs of the city and the teachers of the city and neighborhood, the high schools and such of the public as wish to come."

"I may say," said Pendragon, "that the president has read the course for six years and last fall organized a circle of ten members at the neighboring village of Big Run. The Punxsutawney circle has a membership composed of many of the strong men and women of the community and when Chautauqua is used by such people for the good of the town there is scarcely any limit to its usefulness."

# Assembly Calendar for 1909

(For the convenience of C. L. S. C. members who intend to take advantage of the C. L. S. C. exercises held this summer by various Chautauqua Assemblies throughout the country the following list of Assemblies is published. We have here noted only those Assemblies which have already sent information as to dates, and arranged for C. L. S. C. representation. Other Assemblies there are which have not yet reported. We shall publish in the July CHAUTAUQUAN a revised list of all Chautauquas which, to our knowledge, observe the Recognition day exercises or endeavor to promote the C. L. S. C. work.)

| *Name of Chautauqua.* | *Assembly Dates.* | *Manager.* |
|---|---|---|
| **CALIFORNIA.** | | |
| Pacific Grove, | July 9-25. | Mrs. E. J. Dawson, Sec., San Jose, Cal. |
| Recognition Day, July 21. | Speaker, W. C. Evans, D. D. | |
| **COLORADO.** | | |
| Boulder, | July 4-Aug. 14. | F. A. Boggess, Sec. |
| Rocky Mountain, | July 15-Aug. 21. | Frank McDonough, Jr., Sec. |
| **CONNECTICUT.** | | |
| Plainville (Conn. Chaut. Assem.) | July 21-29. | B. F. Gilman, Sec. |
| **ILLINOIS.** | | |
| Aurora, | Aug. 9-23. | O. L. Wilson, Mgr. |
| Dixon (Rock River), | July 31-Aug. 15. | Adam A. Krape, Supt., Polo. |
| Recognition Day, Aug. 5. | Speaker, D. W. Howell, D. D. | |
| Havana, | July 29-Aug. 12. | Jas. L. Loar, Mgr., Bloomington. |
| Recognition Day, Aug. 6. | Speaker, D. W. Howell, D. D. | |
| Hoopeston, | July 30-Aug. 8. | Jas. H. Shaw, Supt |
| Recognition Day, | Speaker, Mrs. Charles E. Risser. | |
| Lithia Springs, | Aug. 14-30. | Rev. J. L. Douthit. |
| Recognition Day, Aug. 21. | Speaker, Prof. S. C. Schmucker. | |

Ottawa, Aug. 20-29. Jas. H. Shaw, Supt.
Petersburg (Old Salem), Aug. 11-29. Rev. J. M. Johnson.
Pontiac, July 17-Aug. 1. A. C. Folsom, Mgr.

INDIANA.

Kokomo, Aug. 6-15. Wm. E. Rauch, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 13. Speaker, Dr. Geo. E. Vincent.
Oakland City, May 28-June 7. Byron W. King, Supt.
Pleasant Shades, July 17-Aug. 1. W. D. Higdon, Supt.
Wabash, July 6-15. James H. Shaw, Mgr.
Winona Lake, June 28-Aug. 21. Rev. S. C. Dickey, Mgr.
Recognition Day, Aug. 20. Speaker, Dr. George E. Vincent.

IOWA.

Charles City, Aug. 3-14. A. D. Clark, Secy.
Clarinda, Aug. 5-14. W. E. Whittaker, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 13.
Waterloo, June 29-July 9. R. N. Corwin, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 6. Speaker, Prof. James W. Crook.

KANSAS.

Cawker City (Lincoln Park Assembly), July 31-Aug. 16. Robert Good, Sec., Jamestown.
Clay Center (Clay County Chautauqua), July 23-Aug. 1. C. Vincent Jones, Sec.
Coffeyville, Rev. C. S. Nusbaum, Sec.
Emporia, July 12-22. Fred W. Bortell, Mgr.
Ottawa, July 19-Aug. 30. Henry Durst, Sec.
Parsons, July 9-19. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.
Salina, July 22-Aug. 1. A. H. King, Sec.
Sterling, July 27-Aug. 6. C. G. Miller, Sec.
Wathena, Aug. 21-29. A. W. Themanson, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 25. Speaker, Rev. M. F. Troxell.
Winfield, July 5-16. A. H. Limerick, Sec., 119 E. 9th Ave.

MARYLAND.

Mountain Lake Park, Aug. 1-30. W. L. Davidson, Mgr., 1711 Lamont St. N. W., Washington, D. C.
Washington Grove, July 20-Sept. 4. A. H. Hiller, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 10.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Northampton (Conn. Valley Chautauqua), July 13-23. E. P. Butler, Pres.
Recognition Day, July 21.

MICHIGAN.

Jackson, June 24-July 4. O. L. Wilson, Mgr.
Kalamazoo, July 15-25. O. L. Wilson, Mgr.

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MISSOURI.

Carthage, July 3-10. E. H. Wyatt, Sec.
Recognition Day Speaker, D. W. Howell, D. D.
Clinton, July 15-25. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.
Sedalia, July 17-31. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.
Springfield, July 5-17. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.

NEW JERSEY.

Ocean Grove, July 9-19. A. E. Ballard, Sec.

NEW YORK.

Chautauqua, July 1-Aug. 29. A. E. Bestor.
Recognition Day, Aug. 18. Speaker, Pres. W. H. P. Faunce, Brown Univ.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Devil's Lake, July 3-19. Edgar LaRue, Sec.

OHIO.

Bellefontaine, July 23-Aug. 1. James H. Shaw, Supt.
Recognition Day Speaker, Miss H. E. Stanley.
Bethesda (Epworth Park), Aug. 6-23. I. S. Secrest, Supt.
Urbana, Aug. 27-Sept. 5. James H. Shaw, Supt.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Mount Gretna, July 3-Aug. 4. V. W. Dippell, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 29. Speaker, Bishop Vincent.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Big Stone Lake Chautauqua, July 1-15. R. J. Hicks, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 14. Speaker, Arthur E. Gringle.
Madison, June 25-July 12. G. G. Smith, Pres.

TENNESSEE.

Monteagle, July 3-Aug. 29. Allen G. Hall, Supt.

WISCONSIN.

Delavan Lake, Aug. 12-22. W. A. Cochran, Pres.
Recognition Day, Aug. 12. Speaker, Gov. R. B. Glenn, North Carolina.

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# The Chautauquan

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Seventh, upon such a group of to the illustrated CHAUTAUQUAN magaz —a monthly "magazine-teacher"— throw side lights, showing their relat to current events, presenting supp mentary articles, library shelf, and r ular editorial departments.

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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 55. JULY, 1909. No. 2.

A national peace conference has recently been held in Chicago, and later the annual Lake Mohonk conference met to "take stock" and consider the gains or losses of the movement for international arbitration. There was no sign of discouragement at either gathering, though recent diplomatic and political developments give cause for regret and anxiety to sincere lovers of humanity. The clamor for more war ships and larger naval budgets in England, the talk of inevitable friction with Germany, the accelerated naval program of the latter country, the difficulties in the Near East, the danger of reaction and foreign intervention in Turkey—these and other phenomena that have been discussed in these pages seem to have placed new obstacles in the way of peace workers. But, as has been said, obstacles are "things to be overcome," and progress is never absolutely steady or continuous. Panics, "crazes," gusts of passion are to be expected. Jealousy, suspicion, fear have not been eliminated from international relations. But reason and sobriety and justice play a stronger part today than they have ever played before in these relations and public opinion is in a much healthier state. As President Butler of Columbia University said in his address at the Mohonk conference:

"Despite everything, the political organization of the world in the interests of peace and justice proceeds apace.

"There is to be established at the Hague beyond any question, either by the next Hague Conference or before it convenes, by the leading nations of the world, acting along the lines of the principles adopted at the second Hague Conference two years ago, a high court of international justice. It is as clearly indicated as anything can be that that court is to become the supreme court of the world.


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"The Interparliamentary Union now attracts to its membership representatives of almost every parliamentary body in the world. In this Interparliamentary Union lies the germ of a coming federation of the world's legislatures which will be established in the near future, and whose powers and functions, if not precisely defined at first, will grow naturally from consultative to that authority of which wisdom and justice can never be divested.

"Each year that the representatives of a national parliament sit side by side with the representatives of the parliaments of other nations, look their colleagues in the face and discuss with them freely and frankly important matters of international concern, it will become more difficult for them to go back and vote a declaration of war against the men from whose consultation-room they have but just come."

The speeches and resolutions of the peace conferences dwell on the duty of continuing the vigorous advocacy of arbitration, of perfecting the organizations working toward that noble end, and of bringing moral pressure to bear on the governments in favor of more and more comprehensive treaties for the settlement of disputes. That is, questions affecting "national honor and vital interest," heretofore excluded from the scope of treaties might now, it is felt, be safely included, the conditions warranting another great step forward. The platform of Mohonk Lake Conference, which is also a call to the nations, contains these strong and explicit declarations:

We urge upon our government, which has been so conspicuously identified with the progressive policies of The Hague, prompt action toward perfecting the important measures there inaugurated and the complete development of the system of arbitration. We especially urge its early initiative in the establishment of the international court of arbitral justice.

We further urge the negotiation of a general treaty of arbitration among all nations and look forward with increasing hope to the day when treaties of arbitration shall provide for the reference to The Hague of all international differences not settled by regular diplomatic negotiations.

It is the opinion of this conference that the time has arrived for carrying into effect the strongly expressed desire of the two peace conferences at The Hague that the governments "examine the possibility of an agreement as to the limitation of armed forces by land and sea, and of war budgets," and address themselves to the serious study of this pressing question. Accordingly we ask our government to consider whether the peculiar position which it occupies among the nations does not afford it a special opportunity to lead the way toward making these weighty declarations a basis of public and concerted action.

The Chicago peace conference called on the President of the United States to take the initiative as to these de-

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siderata in even more positive terms. To complete the work of the Hague congresses, the resolutions of that meeting stated, America should propose and labor for compulsory arbitration by general treaty, for an international court, limitation of armaments, periodical congresses, and immunity of private property at sea in times of war.

It is certain that such results will not be brought about without much labor and further agitation and discussion, but the goal is clear and the best minds of the world are moving toward it. Even mere business considerations plead for peace and arbitration as the delegates of commercial and industrial bodies to the Mohonk conference earnestly proclaimed in separate resolutions. Despite warlike talk and panics, we may repeat with President Butler, appeals to brute force, to fire and sword, should be considered "out of date" in all civilized countries.

## The Great Municipal Experiment

We have referred from time to time to the remarkable advance in this country of "commission government" for cities and towns. That form of administration does away with city councils and mayors and concentrates authority and responsibility in a small body of men elected on a general ticket. Each of these men is placed in charge of a department—police, public works, revenue, etc.—and appoints his subordinates. The best thinkers of the country look for notable results from this experiment, if it may still be called an experiment. Several states have now adopted general statutes enabling their municipalities to establish commission government at the option of the local citizens, and not a week passes that does not bring interesting news from a number of cities, north and south, east and west, that have resolved to try the system. A few weeks ago cities in Colorado, North Dakota, Mississippi, New Hampshire joined the movement, and Illinois enacted a law towards the same end.

There is much variety within the plan. Some of the charters permit novel and radical features, others are con-

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servative. In some instances the commission has much power and the voters little, while in others the commissioners are subject to recall during their terms of office and to various restrictions as regards legislation. The referendum is now generally provided for in city charters, especially with reference to franchise ordinances and the management of public utilities—street cars, gas and electric light, etc. Des Moines, as we have shown, has a very advanced plan that combines democratic control with concentration of power. Colorado Springs, Colo., has adopted an even more radical charter, in which party labels are done away with for municipal elections, the recall and referendum are prescribed, and other innovations authorized. It is manifest that commission government is to have a thorough trial, and the fact that there are so many varieties of it is favorable rather than ominous. The fittest forms will survive, and the fads will disappear.

The essential thing is to secure efficiency, economy and honesty in municipal administration, and perhaps commission government, with popular control of the few commissioners, is the solution of our long-standing problem. City government has been our worst failure, and the better opinion is that partisan politics, spoils, divided responsibility and lack of control have been the causes of that failure. It is hoped that strong, able and unselfish men will accept office more readily under a system which gives them power and frees them from the obligations and ties of "ward politics." Another decade should afford an abundance of material for testing these beliefs and passing definite judgment on commission government.

### The Lessons of the Tariff Struggle

The tariff debate in the federal Senate has taught the country, or at least recalled to its mind, several vital lessons. The struggle has not been wholly candid or pleasant, but it may serve useful purposes as far as our future practice is concerned.

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The Senate divided itself naturally into "standpatters" and "progressives," the latter fighting for genuine revision, or revision downward, in accordance with the promises of the party platforms, the demands and interests of consumers, and even the principle of reasonable protection, and the former stubbornly refusing to reduce duties and going so far as to deny that the Republicans had pledged themselves to revise the Dingley tariff downward. The Senators from the middle West, with some exceptions, led the progressive or "insurgent" minority, and the advanced Republicans frequently voted with the Democrats against the leaders of the Senate "organization."

The Democrats, however, have not been united and many of them have not hesitated to depart from the traditional principle of their party—tariff for revenue only. Some have frankly voted for protective duties, while others have advocated for revenue purposes precisely the rates that the standpatters proposed for protective purposes. Democratic organs have denounced southern senators as betrayers of their party at the bidding of powerful trusts or corporations —much as Mr. Cleveland denounced the "Gormanized" Wilson bill of the '80's as "perfidy and dishonor"—but the attacked senators calmly replied that their constituents were with them. Amusing and even farcical instances of individual inconsistency and individual self-stultification have not been wanting, but President Taft has drawn from the spectacle the inference that the parties are working closer and closer together on the tariff and revenue questions, and that the old differences between protectionists and revenue advocates have almost disappeared. In other words, the Democrats themselves would not abandon protection if they could. Some of them, it is true, vote for certain duties on the ground that they are absolutely necessary "for revenue," but where the same duties are regarded by the Republicans as sufficient for protection there is nothing left to contend over, in Mr. Taft's words.

The acknowledged and pathetic ignorance of many Congressmen as to proper rates of duty under the principle

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of "moderate" or "scientific" protection, the statements of others that interested witnesses are not to be believed because of their conscious or unconscious bias, and the differences among business men themselves as to what is legitimate protection and what is excessive or extortionate in rates have served to emphasize a moral—the need of adopting safeguards for the future and basing rates on something better than conjectures or dubious *ex parte* testimony. If protection is to equalize difference in cost of production here and in Europe, then that cost ought to be accurately and impartially ascertained by trained men. This means a commission or other body of some sort charged with the duty of preparing data and studying industrial facts for the guidance of the tariffmakers in Congress. Of course, the power to legislate cannot be delegated by Congress, and no tariff commission can ever be given the authority to reduce or raise rates. But a commission to investigate and recommend changes is a different thing, and a beginning in that direction has been made by the new tariff bill.

This good feature, like others, is due to the popular demand, especially in the great Middle West, for more liberal tariff legislation and for proper consideration for the interests of the consumers, "the forgotten class." President Taft's quiet but earnest insistence on "revision downward" has also been a potent factor in forcing the extremists to make concessions.

## The "Town Planning" Movement

A national conference has recently been held at Washington to discuss the subject of "town planning"—a question which subdivides itself into a score of questions. In England a town planning bill is before Parliament, while in Germany not only legislation but administration has for many years concerned itself with the problem, and town planning has there been elevated to a science or art.

By town planning is meant foresight and intelligence in constructing, reconstructing or improving cities, large or small. Individuals and families do not, if they are en-

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lightened, live from hand to mouth; they take thought of the morrow and the distant future, and they seek to prevent waste and maladjustment. Why should communities "just grow," like Topsy? it has been asked. Why should not plans be made in advance with reference to streets, paving, parks, boulevards, public centers, the grouping of state and municipal buildings, the provision of facilities for recreation in the thickly populated districts, the regulation of housing, the electrification of steam roads, and so on?

It has gradually been realized in this country that "the time has come for a city plan," and that various campaigns and movements in behalf of health, cleanliness, economy, efficiency and beauty have paved the way to a broad, systematic campaign in favor of town planning. The movement is one which should appeal to business men, to friends of art and order, to efficient public officials. It is constructive and progressive. It avoids extravagance and duplication; it prevents ugliness, monstrosity and filth. It makes for public health and public comfort.

The conference, the first in the country, discussed many phases of the movement and served to disclose the fact that not a few of our cities are following carefully arranged plans in their improvements and extensions. In many communities the question is still new, but interest in it is growing.

The town planning movement reënforces many other municipal reform activities and conflicts with none. It affords opportunities for the widest coöperation.

### The "Commodities Clause" Decision

It will be remembered that one of the remarkable amendments which the Hepburn railroad-rate bill received in the Senate prohibited common carriers from transporting commodities (except timber and its products) owned or manufactured by them. The clause read as follows:

> From and after May 1, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any railroad company to transport from any state, territory or the District of Columbia, to any other state, territory or the District of Columbia, or to any foreign country any article or commodity, other than timber and the manufactured products thereof, manufactured, mined

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or produced by it or under its authority, or which it may own, in whole or in part, or in which it may have any interest, direct or indirect, except such articles or commodities as may be necessary and intended for its use in the conduct of its business as a common carrier.

This clause was declared invalid by the Federal Circuit Court on the theory that it was in restraint of commerce and tended to deprive carrying corporations of rights of property. The Supreme Court, however, upheld the principle of the clause while giving it a totally different construction from that which the government or the railroads had placed upon it. Under its decision railroads are only prohibited from transporting goods which they own or control, in a strictly legal sense, at the time of the transportation. The first paragraph of the court's own summary of the decision contains the gist and essence of the whole matter. It runs thus:

The claim of the government that the provision contained in the railroad act approved June 29, 1906, commonly called the commodities clause, prohibits a railway company from moving commodities in interstate commerce because the company has manufactured, mined or produced them, or owned them in whole or in part, or has had an interest, direct or indirect, in them, wholly irrespective of the relation or connection of the carrier with the commodities at the time of transportation, is decided to be untenable. It is also decided that the provision of the commodities clause relating to interest, direct or indirect, does not embrace an interest which a carrier may have in a producing corporation as the result of the ownership by the carrier of stock in such corporation irrespective of the amount of stock which the carrier may own in such corporation, provided the corporation has been organized in good faith.

There is nothing in the clause as now interpreted to prevent a railroad company which owns and operates a mine from selling its coal at the mouth of the mine and then transporting it to any market. There is likewise nothing to prevent such a railroad from organizing a subsidary company to own the mine and from controlling the company by owning and voting its stock. This completely defeats the object of the clause—the object as the Press, the people, and even Congress understood it. The intention was to separate, actually and absolutely, production of commodities from their transportation, such separation having been rendered necessary by notorious abuses, such as discrim-

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ination in the distribution of cars, unfair competition against independent coal operators, etc. But, it seems, the Senate did not use the proper phraseology to give effect to that intention. In fact, it rejected one or two amendments expressly mentioning stock ownership and declaring it to be an interest within the meaning of the act. The court said it could not include that which the Senate had by implication excluded, as that would be judicial legislation.

The decision has disappointed many and is regarded as too technical and narrow. But there is consolation for Congress and the national administration in the fact that the principle of the clause is approved. An amendment to include stock ownership or sale after production and immediately before transportation will be pressed at the next session of Congress. There will be strong opposition to such a proposal, for the railroad interests are demanding "peace" and "rest," but the administration is known to favor it.

### Defeat for Counter-Revolution

Constitutionalism has triumphed in Turkey, and the pessimists and cynics are silenced again. The wonders of the revolution last summer, when the "Young Turks," with the aid of the Macedonian army, overthrew the old regime without bloodshed and with but little opposition, were surpassed by the wonders of last April and May, when the same Young Turk leaders, again with the aid of the Macedonian army, defeated the sultan's reactionary and treacherous troops and reëstablished the constitutional order incidentally deposing the astute and perfidious Abdul Hamid and placing his brother Reshad Effendi on the throne with the approval of the church.

The counter-revolution has not yet been fully explained, and perhaps it never will be fully explained. The best observers believe that the fanatics and beneficiaries of the regime of bribery, corruption, favoritism, espionage and disorder had been quietly organized by Abdul Hamid and his trusted tools for a sudden assault on the parliament and

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the elements that supported it, and especially on the committee of Union and Progress, the executive head of the Young Turk party. It was at first supposed that when the troops in Constantinople revolted and overthrew the government none of their superior officers led them or sympathized with them. This is now considered doubtful, for many officers have since been arrested and executed for treason and mutiny. They were disguised as sergeants or corporals during the great mutiny of April 13, and no one can tell how many others there were who played such parts in the counter-revolution.

Certain it is that the populace had not been enlisted in the movement and took but little interest in it. The cabinet, parliament, and Young Turk leaders were caught unprepared, and for a while amazement and dismay and demoralization completely paralyzed them all. But the loyal Macedonian troops responded to the call of the leaders of the constitutional movement, and it is they who saved the liberties of Turkey, if the failure of the reaction is really complete and all danger of civil war is over.

It must be recognized that the Young Turks and parliament were not without a certain amount of responsibility for the dissatisfaction of the troops and their readiness to sell themselves to the fanatical and the corrupt. Parliament had done very little for the army or for fiscal readjustment; the judiciary had not been reformed, and abuses of the gravest kind had been allowed to continue. The Young Turks, on the other hand, in their zeal for progress, had permitted themselves to adopt a rather arrogant attitude toward the other liberal elements. Instead of unity and harmony there had been discord, "politics," suspicion, and jealousy. Reports had been circulated that the reformers and progressives were at heart opposed to religion and determined to undermine the Koran or Mohammedan law. Theological students and preachers, either from ignorance or bigotry, had carried on an active propaganda among the zealous troops in favor of the restoration of the old order, and it is probable that the Young Turks had not done

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enough to counteract these dangerous activities and to make it plain that their principles of toleration and religious freedom were not godless or sacrilegious.

Be all this as it may, the mutiny had its causes and apparently was not wholly unexpected by foreign observers in the Turkish capital. The comparatively easy and quick triumph of the constitutional forces—for in less than two weeks Abdul Hamid was a prisoner in Salonika, a new sultan had been placed on the throne, parliament had reassembled in safety and freedom, and the Hilmi cabinet, reorganized, was again discharging its duties—was, however, even more amazing than the July revolution had been. Civil war had been apprehended, stubborn resistance, grave disorder, perhaps foreign invasion and dismemberment. But all such perils were avoided owing to the masterly generalship and diplomacy of the Young Turks and to the discipline and loyalty and courage of the Macedonian army.

But will the regained liberties of Turkey provoke no further reaction? Is the new regime safe at last? The new sultan, Mehmed V, has sworn to support the constitution and is supposed to be a liberal-minded man. Care has been taken, too, to deprive him of the Prætorian guard and to strike terror into the hearts of plotters and traitors. The public executions that have followed the capture of the capital—executions that have been deplored in Europe and excused by the Young Turks on the score of imperative necessity—have very probably had some effect on the reactionaries. Still, the tasks before the new regime are many, difficult, and grave. It must prove that the army is not in control of the situation, that parliament is not a mere empty form, that legislation and administrative reform can be honestly and freely promoted without threats or interference from the military chiefs or the power behind the throne. Massacres in Asia Minor and elsewhere must be stopped and prevented, the guilty must be punished even if they belong to powerful and influential sections of the Mohammedan population. Order must be maintained, efficiency and justice secured, sinecures abolished, and economies generally

effected. The world believes that the terrible Adana slaughter of Christians was part and phase of the counter-revolution, but it is not sure that the reformed regime has the moral strength, the resources, the disposition to protect all races and faiths and to put an end to oppression and conflict. New Turkey is now on trial—much more so than it was last year. It has made blunders and has suffered for them. It is patriotic and enlightened, but is it equal to its tremendous responsibilities?

**England's Radical Budget and the Political Situation**

The paramount subject of discussion in Great Britain is the "radical" budget recently presented by Mr. Lloyd George, the chancellor of the exchequer. It has, for the moment, overshadowed the exciting question of armaments and defence. Not only the Tories and other elements of the Opposition, but many Liberals as well, are bitterly complaining of the new taxes proposed by the government. "A red-flag budget" and "class legislation," "attacks on Capital," "spoliation of the wealthy for the benefit of the poor," are among the phrases employed in characterizing the fiscal program of the ministry.

Owing to the industrial depression, the supposed need of increasing the naval appropriation, and the cost of the old-age pension system, the government was confronted with the necessity of "finding" about $80,000,000 additional revenue. New sources of taxation had to be discovered, while further burdens on the poor and the persons of small incomes were tacitly regarded as quite impossible. How to tax wealth without discouraging industry and useful enterprise was the great and difficult problem.

The "radical" budget increases existing taxes in several directions and, in addition, establishes some new principles in taxation that are regarded as far-reaching. It is these "departures" that have excited the hostility and alarm of the aristocracy and the industrial community. In the first place, a super-tax of sixpence (12 cents) to the pound is im-

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posed on incomes over $25,000, but it is to be payable only on the amount by which the income exceeds $15,000. In the second place, death and legacy duties are considerably increased, the maximum, or 15 per cent., being the duty on estates of $5,000,000 and over. In the third place, motor car taxes and stamp duties are raised as are also duties on liquor licenses, tobacco, and spirits. All these new taxes are frankly levied in accordance with the "ability to pay" doctrine—with the doctrine of making the prosperous, the consumers of luxuries, contribute more in proportion to their revenues or possessions than is exacted of the rest of the nation.

Finally, three land taxes are imposed for the first time. Twenty per cent. of the "unearned increment" of land—of the value resulting from the mere growth of population and trade,—is to be appropriated by the State in harmony with the now familiar distinction between property in land and property in other material things. There is further to be a tax of one cent in the pound on the capital value of undeveloped or uncultivated land, and a similar tax on mineral land held out of use.

The government and its supporters do not deny that some of these proposals are novel and radical, but they warmly repudiate the assertion that they involve confiscation and spoliation. What, they ask, is the alternative? Where would the Tories, if placed in power, obtain the additional revenue that pressing social reforms on the one hand, and the international developments of the past year or two on the other, have rendered indispensable? Would they tax food and other necessaries of life; would they repeal the old-age pension act; would they economize in the army and navy services? These queries are not definitely answered by the opposition but it is understood that, in the opinion of fiscal reformers, protective duties, taxes on foreign imports, would yield the requisite millions. And in the next election, there is little doubt, the electorate of the nation will be called upon to choose between a free-trade budget with income taxes, land taxes, inheritance taxes, and high

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taxes on luxuries (including some "anti-social" luxuries), and a protection budget with taxes on foreign imports largely consisting of raw material, food, and necessaries generally. The budget has thus deepened the interest in the struggle between the parties. The Liberal position is weakening; the by-elections are, as a rule, unfavorable to the government, and the Tories have regained their confidence and are celebrating victory at the polls in advance of the contest. But there are those who believe that the budget will please millions of voters where it has offended thousands, and that an early appeal to the people would result in another lease of life to the Liberal government.

### Swinburne and Meredith: The Last Victorians

The death of Swinburne, the poet and critic and dramatist, in April, and of George Meredith, the poet, novelist, and thinker, in May, inflicted a severe loss upon English letters and art. These two great writers, the last of the so-called Victorians, were intimate personal friends and had some beliefs and qualities in common. Swinburne was a poet's poet; that is, he was more deeply appreciated by his fellow-artists than by the general reading public. He was never popular in the sense in which Tennyson was popular, though the select and cultivated regarded him as the more gifted poet. He had known neglect, misunderstanding, disappointment and injustice. In the first period of his career he was the subject of violent assaults as a poet of physical passion and license, and some of his early verses, supreme as they were as to form, were certainly strange to English ears. But he was not long in winning lasting fame and genuine admiration. His gifts were rare; his enthusiasm and exuberance and lyrical splendor were fed by a marvelous imagination and a romantic nature. He was often extreme in opinion and unrestrained in his expression of emotion, but he was always sincere and courageous, and the beauty and music of his verse—and of his prose as well—charmed where they did not convince. As a critic Swinburne had

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serious faults; he was too rhetorical and passionate. As a dramatist he was too "literary" and too scholarly. But his power, vitality, abundance, and subtlety, his intense love of freedom, his sympathy with the great reform movements, his profound devotion to idealism, have given him a place among the immortals in literature.

George Meredith was the novelists' novelist. He had to wait longer than Swinburne for recognition and fame, and even now his readers are not numerous. But for a decade or more he was the Nestor of English writers, the adored and beloved master, the fountain of inspiration and faith and philosophy. He has, indeed, been called "the poet of faith," and he remained impressionable, open-minded, enthusiastic to the end. In politics he was a "radical," and on social problems he occasionally expressed heterodox, almost "revolutionary" opinions. He loved life, wisdom, freedom, humanity. He was optimistic and generous. His chivalry toward woman, his delights in the lovely traits of feminine character, his sympathy with the struggles of the fair sex against prejudice and custom, have endeared him to thousands of thoughtful and progressive women. His novels present a whole gallery of fascinating and admirable feminine types. His study of life and character is full of insight, of humor, of penetration, of truth. "The Egoist," a study of complacent vanity and extreme pompous satisfaction, and "Richard Feverel," a delicious satire on "education by rule" and parental ignorance of youthful nature, are his masterpieces. He was an "intellectual" artist; his novels are full of substance, of thought, of understanding.

Much has been said about Meredith's style. It is obscure, difficult, involved and at times unintelligible. He has been accused of deliberately torturing language, of perverse ingenuity, of "license," of pedantry. The best critics recognize, however, that the defects of his style are inseparable from the qualities of his mind. Meredith was a poet—a poet who generally wrote prose, though he occasionally published a volume of verse. As a poet he thought in images and metaphors. His imagination was rich, his thought swift,

and the superabundance of ideas, shades of meaning, comparisons, implications made his style strained and complex. His irrepressible humor and brilliant wit led him to indulge in quips, whimsicalities, oddities of characterization and expression. But while these eccentricities may be regretted, and while it is doubtless true that Meredith will never be a popular novelist, those who read fiction not as mere pastime, but to enrich their knowledge of their fellowmen and of life, find a splendid harvest in Meredith's novels. Some of his poetry, notably "Modern Love," has been praised in glowing terms by the most competent and impartial of critics.

The death of Swinburne and Meredith closes an epoch. There are none to inherit their places, none to continue their work in their way and manner. Neither has founded a school, and neither can be successfully imitated. Both were truly and profoundly original, and the world of letters and of beauty will miss them as Europe would miss some of the Alps were it suddenly to become aware of their disappearance.

## NOTE AND COMMENT.

The first matriculation of women students at the universities in Prussia has resulted in the admission of 663 students, including forty-three from America and seven from the United Kingdom.

A committee composed of leading German editors has decided to prepare an extensive work in the English language to supply English and American readers with authentic information on all features of German life. At the same time a British committee has been organized to get out a similar work in German bearing on England. The German committee has taken steps to interest influential Americans, so that an American work of a similar character may be undertaken. The scheme is designed to promote a better understanding among the three countries and draw them closer together.

DRESSED FOR THE PART.—"What subject have you taken for your address at the Civic Club?" "Woman's moral obligations as a citizen." "What a lovely subject. And what are you going to wear?" "That new gown I brought home with me from Paris. And just think; I had it so cleverly packed in my old clothes that the custom-house inspector never discovered it was there."—*Baltimore American.*

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A Bit of the Lake Shore, Chautauqua.

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Palestine Park, Pier Building, and Steamboat Wharf, Chautauqua.

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The Gymnasium, Chautauqua.

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The Arcade, Chautauqua.

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Plaza in front of the Colonnade, Chautauqua.

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The Girls' Club House, Chautauqua.

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The Boys' Club House, Chautauqua.

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Tennis Courts and Athletic Club House, Chautauqua.

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The "Golden Gate," Chautauqua, on Recognition Day.

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The Bathing Beach, Chautauqua.

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The Bowling Alleys in Chautauqua Athletic Club House.

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In the "Gulf." Scene in the Hills near Chautauqua.

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Unloading Fish at Barcelona, on Lake Erie near Chautauqua, New York.

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Buttermilk Falls. In the Hills near Chautauqua.

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# National Peace Congress at Chicago

By Kate F. Kimball

WITH characteristic energy and enthusiasm the city of Chicago welcomed the Second National Peace Congress. Its sessions held on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, May 3-5, were prefaced by peace exercises in the churches and a mass meeting Sunday night in Orchestra Hall. Distinguished men from all over the world were present. Humor, sarcasm, pitiless logic, the cold facts of history and the plea of humanity were turned upon the peace problem and public sentiment was steadily educated. The city papers "played fair," as a prominent Chicagoan said, and the Congress was treated as the importance of its work merited.

After it is all over and the skeptical critic who did not attend asks "What good did it do?" one is disposed to sit down and consider. Then it is remembered how great movements develop. First the seer, ahead of his time, with his motley collection of followers, dead in earnest, practical and unpractical. Next the days of the pamphlet and the slow growth of "societies," and at length the convention, the newspaper, and the magazine while public sentiment crystalizes itself into action, sometimes with appalling swiftness. Then the world takes a step forward and in spite of the frequent assertions of the enemy that "you can't change human nature," it begins to appear that the Kingdom of Heaven is "practical" after all.

So the Peace Congress has been an object lesson. Thousands of peaceful citizens who feel instinctively that there are more rational ways of safeguarding peace than by an overgrown navy, and who deeply resent the jingoism of the yellow press, have had their convictions deepened by the message of this splendid gathering, which has asserted, and backed up its assertions with proofs, that human ideals and not human bigotry and selfishness are bound to win. And thousands of indifferent men and women have been awak-



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ened to a realization of what world brotherhood might mean if the United States could forget its unworthy fears and take the lead. Mr. Edwin D. Mead reminded his audience that much as our nation has done to forward the work of the Hague Conference, the humiliating fact remains that for the first time in her history the United States is now taking the lead in helping to increase the armaments of the world. Nor must we forget that at the time of the first Hague conference, we came redhanded from the Spanish War, and our own Congress refused to agree to compulsory arbitration. In the Second Hague Conference which "passed pious resolutions and went home," it was the selfish interest of a few nations which blocked progress, and of these Germany, Great Britain, and the United States were the chief sinners. Mr. Mead referred to Augustine Birrell's recent statement that it was a disheartening thing to see the United States among those arming themselves when lovers of peace in the old world had counted upon this nation to help in disarmament. It was a question, he said, between statesmanship and the battleship, The Hague emphasizing one and the Old Adam the other! President Jordan of Leland Stanford University in introducing Mr. Mead remarked that if, as commonly stated armies and navies are the best guarantees of peace, "then the world is pretty hard up." "If," he added, "we can't think of any other way out of it and are really afraid of our seaport towns, we would better spend some of the ten million dollars which Congress is putting into a battleship to insure our seaport towns in European companies. The companies will see to it that Europe doesn't go to war!"

Presumably the great mass of people reached by such a Congress are in general opposed to war, but when we remember how easily the country was led into war in 1898 and how recklessly the press has fanned the latent war spirit in the recent California disturbances, the dangers from widespread ignorance and the mob spirit are evident. President Jordan's remarkable address on the Biology of War, showing how war has robbed the race of its best strength,

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and left the weaklings, the old and the unfit to recruit it, made a profound impression and was referred to again and again throughout the Congress:

"Read the dreary record of the glory of France, the slaughter of Waterloo, the wretched failure of Moscow, the miserable deeds of Sedan, the waste of Algiers, the poison of Madagascar, the crimes of Indo-China, the hideous result of barrack vice and its entail of disease and sterility, and you will understand the 'Man with the Hoe.' The man who is left, the man whom glory cannot use, becomes the father of the future men of France. As the long horn aboriginal type reappears in a neglected or abused herd of high bred cattle, so comes forth the aboriginal man, the 'Man with the Hoe,' in a wasted race of men."

At a crowded meeting held in the rooms of the Chicago Woman's Club, direct appeal was made to women to inform themselves upon the whole question and to use their influence in home and church and club to bring about a sane attitude on this subject worthy of a civilized people. Mrs. Henrotin, who presided, referring to the burdens which war places on the women, quoted Dr. Jordan's statement that "England had planted one of her sons on every rod of earth, and usually one of her best." Miss Addams touched upon the fact that men had in very early times learned to pull together. They went out to fight in companies. But the woman who stayed at home lacked this training. Even as beasts of burden one woman sometimes pulled with a beast, but never two women together. Men seem to admit that their fighting instinct makes politics an attractive pursuit. They find it less easy to organize for the promotion of ideals. It remains for the women to use their new found powers in organizing for the common good and so bring in the element of progress. Mrs. Lucia Ames Mead showed the wastefulness of men and materials in a huge navy, defended by many as needed for "police purposes." The policeman devotes his chief attention to kindly acts for the good of the community, but only rarely is our navy used for neighborly services as in the case of stricken Italy, and a ten million dollar battle ship is not needed for such purposes. The longest and safest boundary line in the world is that be-

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tween the United States and Canada, but it is quite unprotected. How many times since 1817 an armed force along the border might have provoked war, had there been anything to fight with. A few years ago the Latin American republics were held up as a bugaboo, but a supreme court has been established for these republics and our fears have vanished. Referring to the platitudes accepted by many of us without thought, she recalled Dr. Edward Everett Hale's explanation of the aphorism "In time of peace prepare for war." The phrase, he said, could be traced back to a fable of Aesop's where a stalwart wild boar energetically sharpening his tusks is said to have given utterance to this enlightened sentiment. "And so," concluded Dr. Hale, "we have repeated the words of this old hog till they have become as axiomatic as the Sermon on the Mount!" The responsibility resting upon women to promote more enlightened ideas of patriotism among young people was forcibly illustrated by the incident of the boy who when asked the meaning of patriotism said "Killing Spaniards."

Among the notable addresses given in Orchestra Hall was that of Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews of Boston, Secretary of the American School Peace League. She showed the splendid efforts being put forth by American educators to infuse a new spirit into the schools by teaching world brotherhood instead of making war appear to be the best expression of patriotism. This League is organized into committees, whose titles, on Meetings and Discussions, Publications, The Press and Teaching History, indicate the work they have in hand. The International Committee is to study educational ideals in different countries and "weave them into one harmonious whole for the common good." Already in at least fourteen States the superintendents of education are recognizing May 18th as Hague Day or Peace Day, which is to take account of the progress of the world, the growth of the sentiment of brotherhood and emphasize the work of those who have served for the common good. Such a program may easily spread from the school to the community and drive out the war spirit more effectually than any-

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thing else. That teachers may have all possible help in getting before their pupils the new twentieth century point of view, Mrs. Andrews has prepared a manual of suggestions to be sent to every one of the five hundred thousand teachers of this country as fast as money can be raised to meet the expense. Already a sufficient fund has been contributed to distribute at once some fifty thousand of these manuals.

That the universities are contributing to the spread of peace sentiment among educated men and women was shown by the reports from the Intercollegiate Peace Association, already negotiating for a working federation with similar societies abroad, and the unique organizations in the colleges known as "Cosmopolitan Clubs." These have already been formed in nineteen leading universities and have a membership of some fifteen hundred students. Their purpose is to bring together college young men from different countries, to aid and direct foreign students coming to America, and to promote the formation of international friendships. The clubs have lectures on international topics, discussions of subjects of foreign interest, and in particular "national nights" when the representatives of a given country, if possible on the anniversary of one of their own national holidays, arrange a program illustrative of the customs and ideals of their native land and its relation to other countries.

President Schurman of Cornell University in an able address at the Sunday night meeting of the Congress emphasized the idea that human life is not worth living if man is merely a higher animal and the strongest and most cunning is to survive. He discussed three reasons which assure the coming of better things; first, the heavy cost of war, already causing the richest nations to stagger under the burden, while internal affairs of the highest importance are neglected; second, the attitude of the laboring classes who stand unhesitatingly for peace and are the greatest sufferers from war; and lastly, the commingling of nations and friendly relations maintained even where race instincts

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demand separation. "But do not misunderstand me," he said in closing, "I do not trust solely to these. The moral progress of mankind is assured by man's forming high ideals and clinging to them." Tangible evidence of the important share which the universities are to take in the world organization of the future was the announcement on the last day of the Congress of a gift of $25,000 to Northwestern University by John R. Lindgren, the income of which is to be used for holding annual conferences to be addressed by some distinguished advocate of peace, the offering of prizes for essays, and in other ways furthering the progress of international unity.

The diplomatist's point of view was very forcibly presented at one of the sessions of the Congress by Hon. W I Buchanan, whose experience as arbitrator between Chile and Argentina and diplomatic agent in Venezuelan problems gave weight to his opinions. "If all of us," he said, "will just be temperate in our utterances; if we will not undertake in the beginning to determine beforehand questions like the Japanese question; if we can ever reach the point where we are willing to admit the possibility, even, that we may not know the whole case and that wisdom is not going to die with us, and that there is a possibility, just a bare possibility, that the United States may not be entirely and absolutely and wholly right with regard to the question, we shall have little difficulty in reaching solutions of all our questions that will be an honor and a credit to us as a people."

The two topics which in greater degree than any others dominated the Congress were the question of armaments and the next step to be taken at The Hague. Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones in a characteristically epigrammatic speech on the Irritation of Armaments effectually punctured the notion that armaments are necessary to preserve peace. He prefaced his remarks with pertinent quotations from the literature of various countries, "The sheep thirsteth when it sees water," "A soft answer turneth away wrath," and others.

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"It is a law of psychology," he said, "that every seed of violence breeds violence. Every cannon inspires another cannon; the call of the brute inspires the bully; the sword is simply the extension of the fang, the bayonet of the claw, the gun of the club. The increase of armaments is a confession of moral weakness, the domination of the tiger over the angel. We haven't yet learned what every nurse and kindergarten teacher knows, the power of persuasion. Human nature is not so craven as to be scared into peace or to mistake cowardice and greed for brotherly love. Every great war is followed by a period of moral and spiritual degradation. Kipling's "Tommy Atkins" is a degenerate. The principles of heaven are none too good for the United States of America. A man can truly love his country only when he sees it as a part of a greater whole."

Congressman Richard Bartholdt, President of America's group in the World's Parliamentary Union, humorously, but with a keen thrust at our national wastefulness, said, "Great Britain built the first *Dreadnaught*. It was left for the United States to enlarge on that model by erecting one of six hundred more tons than the British battleship of the *Dreadnaught* type. If we keep on building bigger ships, each nation trying to outdo the other, by and by we shall have one so long that just to turn it around will inundate two continents. Then when our lawmakers can't think of any other way in which to spend the people's money they'll begin to build forts around the British possessions."

In hopeful contrast to these much needed reminders of our national weakness was the record of progress at The Hague, brought out by Professor Hull of Swarthmore College. The establishment of a Permanent Court of Arbitration by the first Hague Conference, which provided a list of eminent jurists of all nationalities from which tribunals might be selected, was the greatest work of the First Hague Conference. A Court of Arbitral Justice with world treaties between the nations making submission of their differences to it obligatory, was the ideal approached in the Second Conference, and the American representatives, Mr. Choate and Secretary Root, were leaders in this effort. The two conferences have already made secure certain epoch-

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making reforms and the proposed Court of Arbitral Justice constitutes the international promised land which the speaker believed would in all probability be reached at the Third Hague Conference.

The closing programs of the Congress emphasized national good will. The attitude of the German ambassador was, perhaps of necessity, somewhat on the defensive, but he made prominent the fact that the German Emperor though for twenty-one years the head of the strongest army in the world, had never made a war. China's picturesque ambassador, Hon. Wu Ting Fang, was given an ovation by his great audience, many of whom must have recalled his pathetic address on "Chinese Civilization" ten years ago just after his own country had been humiliated at the hands of the "Powers." On the present occasion there was a touch of fine superiority in his tone as he expressed his especial pride in bringing greetings from the oldest empire in the world, a nation which was famed for its love of peace. "China has no schemes of self-aggrandizement at the expense of others, so often the cause and pretext of bellicose action," said Minister Wu. "Even in her days of past conservation and seclusion from the nations of the West, her only desire was to be left alone and be permitted to enjoy peace. Her motto has been and is 'Live and let live.'"

The Japanese representative, Consul Matsabura, referred to the recent visit to Chicago of a Japanese officer of Admiral Togo's fleet. He was invited to make a trip to the world-famous stock yards in Chicago but he refused, saying, "I do not like to see blood shed." "That is the sentiment of Japan," said the consul. Dr. Kaht of Norway showed his country's honorable record as a peace loving nation and called attention to the fact that Norway has a peace budget, a regular appropriation for peace propaganda.

Much of the success of the Congress was due to the generous attitude of the members of the Chamber of Commerce, who helped to make this gathering noteworthy in the history of the city. At the closing banquet tendered to delegates by the Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Higin-

botham, President of the World's Columbian Exposition, said, "I am hoping that future expositions will leave out the enginery of war. I know that we had a war ship and a Krupp gun at our own exposition, but I am older now and I have a higher appreciation of the implements of peace and an intense dislike, amounting to hatred, of war and its trappings. I would rather have any sixteen men chosen from the Peace Association make a circuit of the globe than as many war ships. I believe they would accomplish more for humanity's good and for the peace and prosperity of the world."

This Congress will be heard from again in the near future. Said Congressman Bartholdt, "The world is governed not by men, not by parties, but by ideals. Let us remember that in the last one hundred years, 260 international controversies have been settled by arbitration without even an international police force. There should be a peace organization in every congressional district to make its influence felt with the candidates for the national legislature. These district organizations should then merge into state organizations and into a great national body whose power and influence will shape legislation along peace lines and make representatives, senators, and even presidents sit up and take notice."

Some such movement as this is likely to be the outgrowth of this peaceful capture of Chicago for world brotherhood. New York, Philadelphia, and Boston are already organized and from Chicago as a strategic center the West is to be won. A year ago Pennsylvania's 375 peace societies met on the site of Penn's great treaty and pledged their support in fulfilling the recommendations of the last Hague Conference. Other states must be organized and meanwhile through press and pulpit and school, through clubs and Chautauqua circles, the latter of whom have already established and observed May 18 as International Peace Day, and during the past year have carried on a historical study of the development of the Friendship of Nations, the education of public sentiment will continue till medieval ideals shall be relegated to the dark ages which produced them.

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# The Fish That Gave Us the Name Chautauqua

By Obed Edson

AFTER considerable research, I have arrived at the conclusion that Chautauqua Lake owes its name, and much of its distinction, to a celebrated fish that inhabits its waters, known as the Muskalunge. It is believed by many that Chautauqua Lake was the ancestral haunt of this noted fish and that the Allegheny, Ohio, and their tributaries, and even the upper waters of the Mississippi, were peopled from this source. However that may be, the muscalunge of Chautauqua Lake is the finest of food, and the largest of game fish found in any waters within the United States, with the possible exception of the lake trout, some of the salmon, and some also of its own species that inhabit larger waters. Long has it been celebrated among white men and red, as the most distinguished of its kind.

It is the purpose of the present article to give some history of Chautauqua Lake, not generally known, with some account of this illustrious fish, its claim to piscatorial distinction, and especially the part it had in giving to us the name Chautauqua.

### ANCIENT MAN AND THE FISH.

For cycles, the muscalunge haunted this old forest bordered lake, before man had acquired that slender measure of invention sufficient to enable him to build a fire, and thus begin the separation of his kind from lower creatures, and prove his right to his title man. Long it was, while but half human, before he learned to use the hook and line, and win subsistence from the river and the sea; longer still before some early genius contrived the bow and arrow, which enabled him to live in forests, away from river banks and sea; and still longer before he could use the hoe and spade, and cultivate the soil.

Upon the hills and in the valleys around Chautauqua Lake are ancient burial places, and remains of old fortifications that tell of a destroyed people, known as the Eries, of



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whom but scant accounts have been preserved.* It remains for us to tell of the white men who came after them and first visited our beautiful lake.

ETTIENE BRULE AND THE EXPLORERS.

England and France at an early day, turned covetous eyes toward the vast territory that includes our lake within its limits. Upon the discoveries made by John and Sebastian Cabot in 1497, England laid claim to the continent of America west to the Pacific. John Varazini, and Jacques Cartie made early discoveries and explorations upon which France based her claim to the continent. These disputed claims led to the great wars that followed between those countries.

Later, Samuel Champlain, making several voyages to Canada, became the real founder of that colony, and also the explorer to whom the first knowledge of this western country, including our Lake Chautauqua, is primarily due. In 1615, one of his companions, a young French lad, Ettiene Brule by name, proved to be the boldest explorer of the American wilderness in his day. In that year Brule set out from Lake Simcoe in Canada with twelve Hurons, on a mission of peace from Champlain to the Andastes, who were the enemies of the Iroquois, and dwelt south of them in Pennsylvania. The route of his travel is not certainly known, but he probably availed himself of the short portage of Chautauqua Lake, and the waters that issued from it into the Allegheny. This had been the route of travel used by the Indians from time immemorial in passing from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi; and by the Indians of Canada when communicating with the tribes to the south of their foes, the Iroquois. A dotted line made by Champlain upon his famous map, bears significant evidence, by its wide circuit to the south and west, that, such was Brule's route and thus appears the remarkable fact, that five years before the landing of the Pilgrims, and the Old Colony days of John Alden and Priscilla, this bold young Frenchman had traversed the far distant forests that bordered Lake Erie

*See "The Eries," by Obed Edson in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for July, 1908.

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and, it is believed, visited our sequestered lake. After the journeyings of Brule, and long before the pioneers let the sunlight into this forest covered region, there passed over the portage many important warlike expeditions, well entitled to a place in history; and there occurred many a romantic incident well worth the telling.

In 1669 or 1670, the French explorer, Robert Cavilier de la Salle, with the sanction of his government, made the first voyage of discovery into the Valley of the Mississippi from the north. The route by which he traveled has long been in doubt. It is more than probable that he journeyed over the Chautauqua Lake portage, and that his first entrance into the great valley,—a notable event,—was when he reached the headwaters of Chautauqua Lake. To further explore the Mississippi Valley, with a view eventually of asserting her right, France, in 1673, sent Marquette and Joliett, from a French trading post and mission on Lake Michigan, to the mouth of the Wisconsin; thence they descended the Mississippi to the mouth of the Arkansas. Finally La Salle in 1682, descended this great river, from the mouth of the Illinois to the Gulf of Mexico.

DE CELORON.

The French were now ready to assert their claim to all the country embraced in the Valley of the Mississippi, including all of the inland lakes and tributaries that empty directly and indirectly into that river. Bancroft says, "Not a fountain west of the Alleghenies, but was claimed as being within the French Empire," and now, eighty years after La Salle's voyage to the Ohio river, by the way of Chautauqua portage, an expedition traversed it that will long be remembered as a momentous event in the early history of Chautauqua Lake; not merely on account of its formidable character, but by reason of the grave consequences that followed it; also because its first invasion into disputed territory was made within the territorial boundaries of the county, and the celebrated name Chautauqua borne by the lake was then first given to the world. This occurred in 1749.

Then it was, that in order more distinctly to assert the

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right of France to this extensive territory by a formal act of possession, the Marquis de Galissoniere, the French Governor of Canada, dispatched Captain Bienville de Celoron at the head of two hundred and seventy men to the Ohio. In June of that year, Celoron having set out from La Chine in Lower Canada in twenty-three canoes, French and Indian, ascended the St. Lawrence. On his way up the river he lost a canoe, and one man by drowning, the only person lost during the expedition. He traversed Lake Ontario, passed along the Niagara River, coasted the southern shore of Lake Erie to the harbor where now is Barcelona, Chautauqua County, New York. Here, at noon on the 16th of July, 1749, at the mouth of the Chautauqua Creek, called by the French the Riviere Aux Pommes (apple river), Celoron landed his motley force of French soldiers, Canadian provincials, a Jesuit priest, and many Iroquois and Abenakis, who had been enlisted in the undertaking. Of this party there were explorers and soldiers who were as familiar with the pathless forests of America, as seamen with the sea—de Contrecoeuer, Coulon de Villiers, Lieutenant Joncaire, Sieur de Saussaye, some of whom became distinguished in the French and Indian wars that followed.

At the break of day on the 17th, Celoron and his men began the portage between Lakes Erie and Chautauqua, undertaking the task of climbing the hills that rose almost like mountains in their path, carrying the canoes containing their provisions and munitions, and the presents intended for the Indians. The woods through which the portage was cut, they thought resembled the forests of France. They observed that the trees, as in France, were generally beech, ash, elm, the red and white oak. There was one with which they were not familiar; for it they had no other name than the "unknown tree." Its light soft timber was useful only for making pirogues. It is supposed to have been the cotton wood or the sycamore tree.

After laborious effort, during which they encountered bad weather, they surmounted the hills. Although Chautauqua Lake is but eight miles from Lake Erie, its surface

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seven hundred and twenty-four feet higher, and the hills that extend directly northward toward Lake Erie, rise several hundred feet higher still. From their summits the view was magnificent. Six miles away, and far below, spread the waters of Lake Erie, then a lonely waste, in the heart of the great American wilderness. The rugged declivity that extended from the hills to the lake, and as far to the east and west as the eye could see, was then an unbroken, majestic, primeval forest. The dark green tops of ragged hemlocks marked the crooked course of Apple River, and its principal tributary, on their way to Lake Erie. There, in an age before, in a deeper gorge, a large river once had run; but at last the glaciers came and choked its ancient channel with sand and clay and glacial drift, and turned its waters southward, and held them there by a dam of ice. Then it was that Chautauqua Lake was born. For an epoch later, it wore a channel through the Great Moraine near Warren, Pennsylvania, to find an outlet to the sea. Partly drained by this process, and diminished to its present proportions, it still holds its place at the extreme verge, but within the limits of the Mississippi Valley, and is the nearest of all its navigable waters to the Great Lakes. The sources of some of its small tributaries are not more than five miles from Lake Erie; there the ridge pole of a building sometimes divides the waters that are ultimately discharged into the sea on the icy coast of Labrador, from those that finally mingle with the tepid waves of the Mexican Gulf.

Celoron, having arrived at the head of the lake, at the site of the village of Mayville, the capital of the County of Chautauqua, was now within the Valley of the Mississippi, and the responsibilities of his commission began. He had caused Father Bonnecamps, his mathematician, on the 15th, on the evening before his arrival at Barcelona, to take the variation of the needle by the north star, which there he found to be nothing. When half a league from Lake Erie, on his way over the portage, an observation of the latitude was taken and found to be 42 degrees 33 minutes north latitude; and again at the head of Chautauqua Lake, where it

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was made by the Good Father to be 42 degrees 30 minutes—about 15 minutes out of the way.

### THE LEADEN PLATE.

Celoron had been provided with leaden plates, upon which was inscribed in French the purpose of the expedition, to be buried at appropriate places on the way. On each plate a space was left to mark the name of the place, or description of the spot where it was to be planted. The following is a translation of the plate prepared for the first of these burials:

"In the year 1749, of the reign of Louis the 15th, King of France, we Celoron Commander of a detachment sent by Monsieur the Marquis de la Galissoniere, Governor General of New France, to establish tranquility in some Indian villages of these Cantons, have buried this plate of lead at the confluence of the Ohio and the Chautauqua (represented on the plate by the word Tchadakoin), this 29th of July, near the river Ohio (known now as the Allegheny), otherwise Belle Riviere, as a monument of the renewal of the possession we have taken of the said river Ohio, and of all those which empty into it, and of all the lands on both sides as far as the sources of the said rivers, as enjoyed, or ought to have been enjoyed by the Kings of France preceding, and as they have there maintained themselves by armies, and by treaties, especially those of Ryswick, Utrecht, and Aix la Chapelle."

It was intended that this plate should be buried where now is the borough of Warren, in Pennsylvania, at the confluence of the Conewango with the Allegheny. Upon this plate the river was described as it was then known to the French as *la Belle Riviere,* or Beautiful River, a name that was afterward applied only to the Ohio; and the Conewango was described as the Tchadakoin, upon the supposition that the latter stream was the outlet of Lake Chautauqua.

### CHAUTAUQUA LAKE.

After six days of difficult portage, Celoron tarried a little while at the head of the lake to rest his men, examine his provisions, and pitch his canoes. On the 23rd of July, 1749, he launched a score or more of bark canoes, manned by motley crews of white men and red, and paddled southward over the tranquil waters of the Upper Lake, breaking the silence of a region that had long been the domain of the Eries, or nation of the Cat. Nearly a century before Celoron

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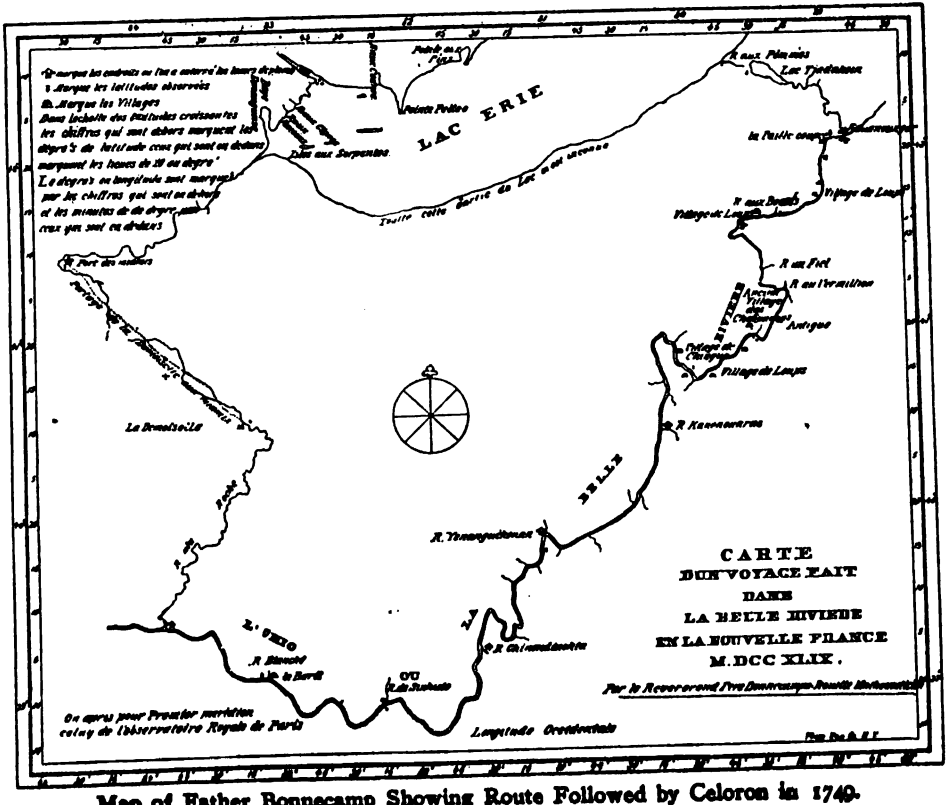


**Map of Father Bonnecamp Showing Route Followed by Celoron in 1749.**

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The Erie Slope as Seen from the Crest of the Divide between Lakes Erie and Chautauqua. (Lake Erie, indiscernible because of the Haze, lies at the Foot of the Slope.)

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The Landing of Bienville de Celoron.

**Chautauqua Lake as Seen from the Divide between Lakes Erie and Chautauqua.**

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Indian Trail in the Hills of the Chautauqua-Lake Erie Divide.

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Long Point, Chautauqua Lake.

Mouth of Chadakoin Creek.

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A Chautauqua Lake Steamboat in the Outlet.

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Indian Encampment for the Enactment of Hiawatha in the Woods near the Outlet, Chautauqua Lake.

Boat Landing, Bemus Point, Chautauqua Lake.

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appeared upon the scene, the Eries had been destroyed, their warriors slain or burned at the stake, and those of their women and children that had not been adopted by friendly tribes driven into the forest to perish of starvation and exposure. Their habitations and palisades had gone to decay, forest trees had grown above their village sites and burial grounds, their rudely cultivated fields again covered by a forest growth, and their territory, including their beautiful lake, had become the domain of the Senecas, the most western of their conquerors. Since the overthrow of the Eries the most of the region had remained unoccupied, save when some wandering Senecas came to hunt the elk, or fish in the lake for the muscalunge; or when, now and then, some adventurous French explorer, or fur hunter had traversed its streams, and visited its solitudes for beaver skins. For here was the home of the beaver, and many traces of old beaver dams exist to this day.

The lake was then buried in the depths of an unbroken forest that spread from Lake Erie eastward to the Allegheny, and southward towards what is now Pittsburg. The nearest Indian village was one at the mouth of the Brokenstraw, in Warren County, Pennsylvania, called by the French. *Paille Coupee,* and by the Senecas *De-ga-syo-ush-dy-ah-goh,* both meaning cut straw, alluding to the broken straws and drooping plumes of the tall wild grass that stood thickly on the meadows there after the storms of autumn had swept over them. Another village was situated at the junction of the Conewango, at Warren, Pennsylvania, with the Allegheny called *Kanaowagon* by Joncaire in 1749, meaning "in the rapids," or "at the falls," probably in allusion to the impetuous current of the Conewango near that place.

Celoron, on his errand of conquest and war soon passed Fair Point, where now is established Chautauqua Institution. Pursuing his southward course, he passed Long Point, the slender cape that projects so far into the lake as almost to divide it, crossed the beautiful sequestered bay beyond, sometimes called the Middle Lake, and passed the

chestnut groves of Bemus Point where it is said was once the ancient Erie village of *Oniasonthe, or Oniasonke. Rique* and *Gentaienton* are also said to have been the names of two other villages of that people. Celoron finally debouched with his armament into the Lower Lake, and late in the afternoon encamped upon its shore within three miles of its outlet. During the day moccasined crews belonging to Celoron's force fishing in the lake were, he tells us, watched by strange Indians from the shore who, when discovered, abandoned their canoes and fled to their village of *Paille Coupee.*

On the 24th, the expedition entered the narrow outlet of the lake that wound its way in many a loop for several miles through a dismal morass, a marsh still sufficiently wild and sylvan to be sometimes chosen to represent scenes from Indian life. To lighten his canoes, for the water of the channel was as low in places as two or three inches, Celoron had to send a part of his loading by hand over a path pointed out by Sieur de Saussaye, who it seems was familiar with this region. Having reached the hills upon which Jamestown is now situated, he probably passed the night there. On his way fresh trails and recently abandoned huts discovered by Celeron's Indian allies, indicated that the expedition was still watched by other strange Indians, so he sent Lieutenant Joncaire, of the famous family of pioneer diplomats and orators (who afterwards met and negotiated with Washington at Venango), on a mission of peace to *Paille Coupee.*

The next day Celoron resumed his voyage which was interrupted now by rapids, and again by shallow water, rendering his passage full of difficulties. As he went down the Outlet, he passed the site of the Village of Falconer. Descending the Cassadaga and the Conewango, he passed the Village of Frewsburg, and on the 29th of July, 1749, he arrived at the site of the borough of Warren in Pennsylvania, at the junction of the Conewango with the Allegheny.

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BURIAL OF THE LEADEN PLATES.

Celoron by this time had ascertained that the outlet of Chautauqua Lake was a tributary of the Cassadaga, and the Cassadaga, a branch of the Conewango; accordingly another of the leaden plates was prepared for burial at Warren, with a correct inscription.

The original manuscript journal kept by Celoron during the voyage has been preserved among the archives of the French Government, and in the Jesuit College at Quebec, a manuscript diary of Jean de Bonnecamps, professor of hydrography; and also a map representing the country through which the expedition passed. Upon the last mentioned leaden plate, according to the journal kept by Celoron, instead of the words "Confluence of the Ohio and Tcha-da-koin, or Chautauqua," were substituted the words at the "Confluence of the Ohio and the Kanaaiagon, or Conewango." This plate was buried according to the record, at the foot of a red oak, on the south bank of the Allegheny, opposite where it joins with the Conewango, and according to the *Proces Verbal,* or official memorandum made at the time, "opposite the point of a small island." It was also not far from the Indian village, *Kanaouagon,* and near where is now the borough of Warren. Search was made in later years for this plate but it was never found.

With Celoron's expedition there were thirty Iroquois, some of whom were Senecas. The domain of the Eries, upon their overthrow, had become the hunting and fishing ground of the Senecas who now, when Celoron was about to enter their territory, naturally felt jealous of his purpose While on his way, or more likely after Celoron had discovered his error in the leaden plate first prepared, which had thereby been rendered of no value for burial, and had been perhaps carelessly laid aside, one of the Senecas stole it, or obtained it by some artifice of Joncaire, the famous French Indian interpreter and orator before mentioned, and transmitted it to Colonel afterwards Sir William Johnson, at his residence on the Mohawk River. Colonel Johnson sent the plate to Governor George Clinton, and proba-

bly it was soon thereafter carried to England. A copy of the inscription was also sent to Governor Hamilton of Pennsylvania.

The plate thus bearing the name of our lake, in the word *Tchadakoin,* became a matter of wide comment and serious speculation in England and the Colonies. The corrected leaden plate was buried on the 29th of July, 1749, with much ceremony. All the officers and men of the expedition were drawn up in battle array. Celoron in a loud voice cried *"Vive le Roi,"* and proclaimed that possession of the valley of the Ohio was now taken in the name of the King of France. The royal arms were affixed to a tree, and a formal memorandum of the ceremony, called *Proces Verbal,* was drawn up and signed.

On the 30th, Celoron arrived at *Paille Coupee* where he was joined by Joncaire, whose mission had not been as successful as desired, there being a strong feeling among the Indians in favor of the English. Celoron continued his journey down the river. He informs us that when at its upper waters he, for the first time, saw the deadly rattlesnake that was made the emblem of the first flags of the Colonies. He had before, while on his journey along the shore of Lake Erie, seen for the first time the noble and stately wild turkey. Franklin thought that its peaceful and solitary habits entitled it to be chosen as the typical bird of the country rather than the foul and rapacious eagle. Later in his voyage, he saw for the first time that other distinguished inhabitant of the wilds of America, the buffalo.

We will omit to give in detail the interesting incidents of the remainder of the Celoron voyage, further than to state that he descended the Allegheny and the Ohio, burying leaden plates on his way, one at the famous rock below Franklin, known as the Indian God; one at the mouth of Wheeling Creek in West Virginia; one at the mouth of the Muskingum, found by boys in 1798; one at the mouth of the Great Kanawah, found in 1846; and last at the mouth of the Great Miami, which river he ascended, passed over

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to Canada and thence to Montreal, where he arrived on the 10th of November, 1749.

Few traces of Celoron's expedition are left in Chautauqua County; two knives bearing French inscriptions found in a mound near the foot of the lake, one or more old muskets with rusty barrels and rotten stocks found by early pioneers, and a four-pounder discovered before the settlement of the county upon the shore of Chautauqua Lake, may possibly have been left by Celoron and his companions.

Four years after Celoron voyaged into the valley of the Mississippi, two hundred Frenchmen under Hughs Peau, by order of the French Governor of Canada, cut a wagon road over the portage from Lake Erie to the head of Chautauqua Lake. This was in October, 1753. The same year, a wagon road was built by the French from the site of Erie to that of Waterford, formerly La Bouef, in Pennsylvania. To ascertain the purpose of the French, as evidenced by these proceedings, Governor Dinwiddie sent George Washington, then but twenty-one years of age, from Virginia to the Allegheny country. He arrived at La Bouef December 11, 1753, and spent six anxious days there, negotiating with the French commandant, St. Pierre.

The voyage of Celoron, the burial of the leaden plates, and the building of these roads constituted an official and aggressive assertion by the French of their claim to all the territories watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries, and were the immediate cause of the Old French War which soon followed, and finally extended to Europe, where, waged on a grand scale, it was known as the Seven Years War. It involved all Europe, and even extended to Asia. So it happens that these events, occurring around Chautauqua Lake, stand at the very beginning of a series of the most momentous events happening in the eighteenth century throughout the world.

JAH-DAH-GWAH.

*Tcha-da-koin* was probably the French phonetic rendering of the name *Cha-da-qua,* as the Frenchmen heard it pronounced by their Seneca informants, and is pronounced

by the French nearly the same as an Englishman pronounces Chautauqua. That this word *Tchadakoin* inscribed on the first of these leaden plates, and *Tjadakoin* as spelled on Bonnecamps map were the name then intended to be applied to our Lake Chautauqua, we have undoubted proof, for upon the map above mentioned, made at the time, and preserved by the French Government, Chautauqua Lake and its outlet are correctly represented, and the lake is plainly designated as *Lac Tjadakoin*. In Celoron's journal of the expedition, it was spelled *Tjadakoin, Chatakoin,* and *Chatakouin*. The differences in the spelling of the word, all with a pronunciation so nearly alike, are decisive evidence of the general acceptance of this as the Seneca name of the lake at that time, and an attempt to render in French what is now the name Chautauqua. These were the first instances when we find the name to have been written by civilized man.

The signification of the name so engraved upon the leaden plate is important for our present purpose. Dr. Peter Wilson, a chief of the Cayugas, enjoyed the advantages of an English education, was graduated with honor at the Geneva Medical College, and practised medicine with success. He had a great love for the traditional annals of his people, and a critical knowledge of the Seneca language. Orasmus H. Marshall, of Buffalo, a historian of much repute, who possessed a thorough and extensive knowledge of the French and Indian history of Western New York, and Canada, knew him well and regarded him as good authority upon those subjects. Mr. Marshall also knew Nathaniel P. Strong, Ely Parker, M. S. Pierce, and others, all well educated Indians, with whom he had frequent interviews and correspondence, and thereby gained a superior knowledge of Indian lore. Dr. Wilson gave to Mr. Marshall the tradition of the Senecas respecting the origin of the word, which he long ago communicated to the writer. This was by him given in Young's "History of Chautauqua County," published in 1875, and by the writer published in subsequent histories of the county as the Indian explanation

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of the meaning of the word Chautauqua. Mr. Marshall gives the tradition, and this meaning for the word in his account of Celoron's expedition. The tradition is as follows:

A party of Senecas, returning from the Ohio in the spring of the year, ascended the outlet and passed into Chautauqua Lake; while paddling through it they caught a fish of a kind with which they were not familiar and tossed it into the bottom of their canoe. Reaching the head of the lake they made a portage across to Chautauqua Creek then swollen with the spring freshets. Descending the creek into Lake Erie, to their surprise they found the fish still alive. They threw it into the lake and it disappeared. In process of time, the same species of fish appeared abundantly in Lake Erie, never having been caught in it before. They concluded these all sprang from the Chautauqua Lake progenitor, hence the name of the lake, which according to Dr. Wilson is compounded of two Seneca words, *Ga-jah,* "fish," and *Ga-dah-gwah,* "taken out." In process of time, by dropping the prefixes of each of the two words according to the Seneca custom, the word became *Jah-dah-gwah,* and was so pronounced according to Rev. Asher P. Wright, long a missionary among them, and a writer, student, and ready speaker of their language.*

The later researches of students of Indian history have convinced them that Indian traditions have often remarkable foundations in fact, although sometimes they have none

*That this was the correct pronunciation of the name of the lake in the Seneca language there can be no doubt. Not only many Indians of that nation, but Joncaire, the famous interpreter, learned in their language, and other Frenchmen, some of whom have been already named, who were conversant with Indian ways and speech, accompanied Celoron. To correctly prepare the leaden plate and map and journal of the expedition were among his most important duties to be performed in this unusually important mission. The conflicting opinions of students of the Indian languages, however proficient, of a century and a half later, cannot be of equal authority in an instance like this. Dr. J. N. B. Hewitt, an accomplished philologist of the highest authority, in interpreting the Iroquois language at the present time gives the name of the lake "T'kantchatakan," which means, he says, "one who has taken out fish there;" a not greatly different interpretation from that given by Dr. Peter Wilson. William M. Beauchamp, eminent authority upon aboriginal names, mentions this tradition seemingly without dissent.

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whatever. Such truth as there may be in this tale, the analysis of the word by Dr. Wilson, and a careful study of the subject and of the meaning of this Seneca word, leaves a decided conviction that the phrase "where the fish was taken out," embodied in the word *Jah-dah-gwah*, alludes to some circumstance connected with the lake, happening before Celoron's voyage, that was regarded by the Indians as of importance. No fish in this lake other than the muscalunge would have been held of such consequence in the eyes of an Indian as to be noticed in this manner at all; or so uncommon as to be regarded as a new and strange species, for all other fish in this lake are of the ordinary kind common to most of the waters of the continent.*

*Chautauqua has since been variously spelled by French and English down to the present day, but has retained substantially the same pronunciation all of the time. A translation of the word as used by Du Quesne, once a governor of Canada, in his communications with the French government in 1753, gives it as "Cha-ta-conit." In the affidavit of Stephen Coffin, an English soldier who was made prisoner by the French, and accompanied the expedition that constructed the wagon road from Erie to Chautauqua Lake, it is spelled "Chadokoin." The affidavit was made before Sir William Johnson in 1754. Pouchot, in his history of the French and Indian Wars, spells it "Shat a coin." Mitchell in 1755, wrote it "Chadocoin." On Crevecoeur's map of 1758, "Chatacouin." On Lewis Evans' map of 1755, and Pownell's of 1776, it is written "Ja dax que." Gen. William Irvin, who visited Chautauqua Lake prior to 1778, wrote it "Ja da qua," and Cornplanter, according to Alden, pronounced it "Chaud-dauk-wa." On the map made by the Holland Land Company in 1804, it is spelled "Chataughque." After the settlement of the county until 1859, it was spelled "Chautaughque," when it was changed by a resolution of the Board of Supervisors of that county to "Chautauqua." These differences in orthography are due chiefly to the different tongues in which it has been written. In the several dialects of the Iroquois language it was pronounced in a slightly different fashion. According to Morgan the Senecas called it "Cha-ta-que;" the Cayugas and Onondagas, "Cha-da-qua;" the Tuscarories, "Cha-ta-que;" and the Mohawks, "Ja-da-qua."

The many Indian dialects, the different pronunciation of words by persons speaking in the same dialect, and the drifting character of the unwritten language of the Red Men account for such confusion and difference as exist among the best of authorities respecting the pronunciation and meaning of Indian words. General Eli Parker, of Tuscarora birth, Chief of Gen. Grant's staff, signifies to the writer his approval of the analysis of the word given by Dr. Wilson. Schoolcraft's "Notes on the Iroquois" gave Gen. Parker, however, as the authority for the statement that "Kenjuck" is the Seneca for fish, nearly the same as he gives it in Tuscarora; and "quah-quah" as the Seneca for bass. Ashur P. Wright in his spelling book of the Seneca language, gives "gan-joh" for fish. Jabez B.

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Hyde, a teacher among the Senecas, who came to their mission near Buffalo in 1811, in a book published in 1827, gives "Kanjo" for fish. Morgan in the "League of the Iroquois" gives "gen-joh" for fish. He says by adding the particle "ga" (itself without signification) to a word conveys the idea of place or territory. In the intricate language of the Huron-Iroquois, compound words are abundant, having the force of nouns, adjectives, and even verbs, adverbs, and particles combined, in one word.

The meaning of some Seneca words, as given by Wm. Marshall, illustrates this custom and also the difficulties philologists encounter in analyzing Huron-Iroquois speech. "Gah-dah-geh," he says, is a "Fishing place with a scoop basket;" "Yo-da-mynh-gwah," "A fishing place with a hook and line"; "Gah-noh-hoh-geh," "The place filled up;" Long Point, "Gad-da-ya-deh," "A place of misery;" "Jiihk-do-waah-gah," "The place of the crab apple;" "De-as-gwah-da-ga-neh," "The place of the lamper eel." Some Seneca names of places in Chautauqua County may be cited by way of further illustration, to-wit, "Ga-na-da-wa-o," "Running through the hemlocks," meaning Cassadaga; Cay-on-to-naor Ki-an-to-ne, probably meaning down," meaning Silver Creek; "Gus-da-go," "Under the rocks," meaning Cassadaga; Cay-on-to-na-or Ki-an-to-ne, probably meaning "corn fields." In these Seneca words may be recognized some of the elements of the word "Jah-dah-gwah," or "Place where the fish was taken out."

Other meanings have been attributed to the word. It is said to be derived from the word Ots-ha-ta-ka, and to mean foggy place. It is also said to mean "high up," "bag tied in the middle," "two moccasins tied together," "where a child was swept away," all with little foundation.

The following legend of the lake has been related: Some Indians once encamped upon its shore. A young maiden of the party having eaten of a root (supposed to be that of the mandrake or May apple) growing there that created great thirst, stooped to drink of its waters when she disappeared forever, hence the name, which, according to the legend, signified "The place of easy death," or "Where one vanishes away." Cornplanter in his speech against the title of the Phelps and Gorham tract, alluding to the tradition, said, "In this case one chief has said he would ask you to put him out of pain, another, who will not think of dying by the hand of his father or brother, has said he will retire to Chaudaukawa, eat of the fatal root, and sleep with his fathers in peace." Col. Wm. N. C. Hosmer, a poet of no mean ability, long ago put this tradition into verse in a poem entitled Ja-da-qua. See Hosmer's Poems, Vol. I., pages 225, 373.

The Indians did not usually indulge in romance of a kind that is pleasing to white men's taste, or have fanciful reasons for their names of places. A lake, or other locality, with them, usually derived what answered for a name from some striking peculiarity belonging to it, or some simple incident relating to it, like that mentioned in the tradition given by Dr. Wilson, or from the name of some Indian living near.

The limits of this article prevent further discussion of the subject, and what has been already submitted will have to suffice for the present. But whatever the word Chautauqua may mean, it is of undoubted Indian origin and has become the lasting name of the lake.

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THE MUSCALUNGE.

The *Mas-ki-nonge,* which in the Algonquin tongue means "great pickerel," belongs to the genus Lucius,—Esocidee tribe; and of the Great Pike, or Lu-ci-i-da family of fishes. They have long been celebrated for their piscatorial virtues, and are widely distributed. The fishes of the genus Lucius are divided into three groups.

First, the pickerel proper, of which there are many kinds, none of which inhabit Chautauqua Lake, unless recently introduced, but are generally found in the eastern waters of New York State and in New England.

Second, the common pike, a slender, long-snouted, voracious fish, sometimes called the Great Northern Pickerel. It is not an inhabitant of Chautauqua Lake, unless lately brought there, but is plentifully found in the other waters of this continent, and in the fresh waters of Europe and Asia, where it is celebrated as a food and game fish, particularly in England, where angling and the various ways of fishing in inland waters have long been held in high esteem.

The third group of the genus Lucius, is the famous Mas-ki-nonge, the best food and game fish of the pike family. As the trout was the master production of the forest streams of North America so is the Mas-ki-nonge of its northern rivers and lakes, and it is exclusively an American fish. So far as known it has not been found in the waters of any other continent, and consequently was unknown to Europeans until long after the discovery of America.

There are two distinct varieties of the Mas-ki-nonge; first, the spotted, sometimes called the Great Pike. This variety is abundant in Lake Erie and the other Great Lakes that discharge their waters northward into the St. Lawrence. It is not found in Chautauqua Lake, and rarely in any of the waters of the Ohio Valley. A second variety is known as the unspotted Mas-ki-nonge—Masquainongy *immaculatus.* It is found in many of the northern lakes and rivers that discharge their waters southward into the Mississippi. Its body is unspotted, with vague dark cross

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shading,—its tail a little more slender, and fins a little higher than in the spotted or Great Lake variety. Of this unspotted fish, there are two quite distinct kinds. One is abundantly found in the rivers and lakes of Minnesota and Wisconsin. The other is found almost entirely in Lake Chautauqua and some of the smaller lakes and ponds of this county and in Northwestern Pennsylvania. Of all the world Chautauqua Lake seems to be the only breeding place and the real home of this most illustrious member of the pike family. In pioneer days it was known as the Chautauqua Lake pickerel. The few of this species that have strayed into the waters of the Valley of the Mississippi seem to be wanderers from their native springs. None of its kind are found in other waters, unless introduced there by the authority of the New York State Fish Commission, and nowhere does it seem to thrive as in the waters of this lake. Its virtues as a food fish, and its excellent qualities from the fisherman's view as a game fish, have given it not only the first place among the fishes of our lake, but a distinguished place among the fish that inhabit the northern waters of the United States.

ANCIENT RECIPE FOR COOKING THE FISH.

That this particular variety of the Mas-ki-nonge may be distinguished from its kindred and from all fishes of a low degree we will give it the scientific appellation *Lu-ci-i-da, Es-oc-i-dea, Lucius, Masquinongy, immaculatus, Chautauquaensis,* a long name it is true, but no longer than its merits deserve. Its meat is white as snow, fine-grained, and of excellent flavor. Izaak Walton esteemed the common pike of England the most palatable of foods, and has given us this excellent recipe for cooking it. He says:

"First open your pike at the gills; preserve the liver which you are to shred very small with thyme, sweet marjoram and a little winter savory; to these put some pickled oysters and some ancovies, add also butter; if the pike be a yard long a pound, which you are to mix with herbs, that are shred, and all to be well salted—these being thus mixed with a blade or two of mace must be put into the fish which

should be sewed up. Then you are to thrust the spit through his mouth, and out at his tail, then with spit sticks or very thin laths, and a convenient quantity of tape or silting these latter are to be tied around the pike's body, from his head to his tail; then let him be roasted very leisurely, and often basted with claret wine and anchovies, and butter mixed together and also what moisture falls from him into the pan. When roasted sufficiently unwind the tape that ties him over the dish in which you propose to serve him. To the sauce add a quantity of the best butter and spice it with the juice of three or four oranges, and then put into the pike with the oysters two cloves of garlic and take it out when the pike is taken off the spit; to give the sauce a hogoe, let the dish in which you serve the pike be rubbed with it."

Thus prepared you have a meat, says Walton, "too good for any but anglers and honest men." But Izaak Walton had never banqueted upon our esteemed fish, and could not have known that the inherent essences and natural flavors of the Chautauqua Muscalunge were sufficient unto themselves, with perhaps a little salt and pepper, a snatch of garlick, and some good butter, without the need of such hogoes, spicing and seasoning with claret wine, and anchovies, and sweet marjoram, and herbs that were shred. We might, however, test this old recipe of two and a half centuries ago, with profit, for Izaak Walton says: "It is choicely good" for he has tried it.

### THE PIONEER, THE INDIAN, AND THE FISH.

As highly as the virtues of the muscalunge are regarded by modern sportsmen it is not more than they have been praised for one hundred and fifty years by Indian connoisseurs. The Senecas made annual pilgrimages from their towns of the Allegheny, the Brokenstraw, and French Creek from thirty to fifty miles away from Chautauqua Lake, to camp on its shores and fish in its waters. While

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A Morning Catch of Muskalunge, Chautauqua.

the bass, the mullet and sunfish were as abundant in their rivers as in this distant lake; the true pickerel, the common pike and other excellent game fish were not found in the waters of Chautauqua, and so we are compelled to believe that it was wholly to fish for the muscalunge that the Senecas came on their long journey to its shores. It was natural that they should associate the name of the fish that was solely the object of their visit with the name of the lake, and we are impressed with the idea that the words of the phrase "where the fish was taken out," in some way alludes to the muscalunge, and that, too, without calling to the support of our belief the Indian tradition that appears specifically to account for the name. We are, however, strongly convinced of the truth of the story. Chautauqua Lake may have been the primitive home of the species, and here it has been developed as we have shown to the highest condition of its kind. Chautauqua was the nearest of the lakes that discharged its waters southward into the Valley of the Mississippi to that of a great lake that discharged its waters northward into the St. Lawrence. In these two great water basins, a somewhat different fauna and flora originally existed. We are to infer from this tradition that long before Celoron voyaged over it a fish, perhaps of this species, *muscalunge immaculatus,* was casually carried, from Chautau-

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qua Lake by a party of Indians, and deposited in Lake Erie, from which may have sprung the spotted muscalunge of the Great Lakes. These two kinds differ from each other only in such slight respects as distinguished one variety from another, as in color and general appearance,—such a chameleon like change as different waters, food and general environment would accomplish in a comparatively short period of time; thus may the Indian tradition be verified.

### FISHING FOR THE MUSCALUNGE.

The pioneer who subdued the wilderness was not only skilled as a hunter but also an accomplished fisherman, as proficient with the spear as the Esquimaux with the harpoon. Fastened upon a staff erected in the prow of his boat was a crate or jack made of pieces of iron hoops, in which burned a torch of pitch pine, gathered from the remains of the old forest of gigantic pine trees, long since gone to decay, that a few centuries before everywhere covered the hills. With a straight handled spear and a man or boy to row his boat, the fisherman of old times was equipped.

By the light of his fat pine torch the stems of the water plants appeared to the fisherman in the clear waters as plainly as if they were in the atmosphere. Unknown rocks, shells, fish, and all the secrets of the lake were revealed by the torch's light. There the shadowy form of the muscalunge was to be seen half hidden among the pickerel weeds and flags, awaiting his opportunity to seize his prey, or in the deep water, holding his position near some sunken log and save a slight movement of his gills, as motionless as if imbedded in glass, or frozen in ice. Now, the dextrous use of the spear is in requisition. If it should be aimed di-

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A Chautauqua Lake Muscalunge.

rectly at the fish as he appears to the eye it would seem to turn sharply upwards from the point where it strikes the water, missing the fish, and reaching a point a distance above it, the variation depending on the depth of the water and the distance of the fish from the boat. The skill of the fisherman consisted chiefly in his ability to correctly calculate the angle of deflection, and direct his spear accordingly. An experienced fisher was able to calculate the angle and to impale the fish while it was moving with considerable speed through the water. The names of these adroit old fishermen, who for many a year plied their vocation there, and their skill, now almost a lost art, are still remembered by the older dwellers around the lake.

APOTHEOSIS OF THE FISH.

The lake owes its fame to the educational system, and to the moral influence of Chautauqua Institution, established on its shore thirty-six years ago. Indeed, much of the material prosperity of the county is due to the same cause. Yet the lake had before that such a distinction as to influence its selection as the place for holding the camp meetings that were the forerunners of the Chautauqua Institution itself. The fame of the lake had even preceded these early camp meetings. Its beauty had long been told by lovers of nature who had visited it. It was, however, the muscalunge, then known as the "Chautauqua Lake Pickerel," that first gave it prestige, trifling as that circumstance may seem. Fishermen from abroad came to angle in the lake, and tell of their piscatory exploits at the expense of our reputable fish. Distinguished physicians and lawyers, men of leisure, travelers and strangers, considered it a rare treat to banquet upon a Chautauqua Lake pickerel. Eminent divines, enthusiastic fishers of men, stirred by a mighty desire to fish also for muscalunge, found their justification in John 21:3, where Simon Peter said to the disciples that were with him, "I go a fishing, and they said unto him, we also go with thee, *and they went forth.*" The influence of this fish was so potent as to corrupt the judiciary of the county. Judges

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have been known to charge the grand jury, in the old Court House at Mayville, at ten o'clock in the forenoon, to indict all persons caught fishing through the ice for pickerel, and at noon, to sit down at the Mayville House and dine without contrition with the same grand jurymen, upon one that they knew could have been caught in no other way. Thus it was that the muscalunge drew attention to the lake and first gave it a reputation.

Were it left to me to choose a device to be engraved on the seal of the county; emblazoned upon its banner, or to otherwise symbolize the name Chautauqua, I would choose the unspotted muscalunge. I would also have written under this device, the word *Jah-dah-gwah,* and the legend: "Where the fish was taken out." An early event in the history of a people,—a trifling, interesting incident is often fastened more firmly in their memory than important occurrences, and so acquires legendary significance. It is commonplace every-day occurrences that fill our lives, and are oftenest treasured in the memories of the people.

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# Some of Our Readers

By the Correspondence Editor

A few centuries ago a woman newly married who feared of retaining her husband's love went secretly to some old hag supposed to be a witch and purchased from her a magic drug called a love potion, with which she "doped" her husband's coffee. The consequences are duly recorded in the high death rate of those happily departed days. Conversely, a young husband, if possessed of a stout castle, kept his lady isolated from the world of men and action, encouraged her in the soft employments of tapestry work and spinning, and endeavored to keep her mind empty of all thoughts but of him and his charms. As a direct result romantic literature was enriched by the story of Paolo and Francesca, certain of the Lays of Marie de France, and kindred tales in verse and prose. Modern methods of retaining interest and affection reveal, on the whole, an advance.

These reflections came to the mind of the Correspondence Editor as he laid aside a letter from one of THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S readers. It was a letter which summarized in human story form what Mr. Cooke will tell Chautauqua students next year in nine scholarly articles on "Woman in the Progress of Civilization." And what it told was merely the simple history of a young couple who decided when they were married to keep up together those intellectual interests which they dimly foresaw family life would tend to disturb. They hit upon the Chautauqua Reading Course as a convenient device to hold them to their resolve. They began the reading, kept it up a while, and then let it drop, for family interests, including a baby, left no time for intellectual pursuits. One day, two years later, they realized that they had fallen into the ways they had anticipated. So they resolved to take up the old course of reading where they had dropped it, enrolled in a class, and are now able to boast "today we have two more books to read." The wife writes, "My husband is reading aloud during the eve-

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ning since last month and thus I can finish the sewing I have to do." And she adds, of the reading, "It has been the means of fostering a love of knowledge, for we both realize that we know nothing. Next year we hope to continue the work, but we shall do it better." The Correspondence Editor does not wish to deprecate a love of learning, but this story seems to him to illustrate something yet finer: an intellectual comradeship of husband and wife that sums up centuries of progress and points to one of the greatest advancements of this modern time upon the Middle Ages. The comradeship of the twentieth century seems, indeed, to him, more truly romantic than the primitive relationship of the fifteenth, historical novelists to the contrary notwithstanding. The matter is neatly formulated in another communication: "My husband's profession forced him to grow intellectually, while I was standing still. We took up the Chautauqua course and found a delightful ground of common intellectual interest."

How great a bond the Chautauqua reading may become for members of a family in danger of developing along divergent lines is witnessed by many letters which find their way from time to time to the office of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. A farmer's wife writes us: "I read alone. I have finished reading the C. L. S. C. Course for 1907-08. We have three or more men all the time who read very little, but they will listen while I read in the evening. Since September I have read the following books to them: 'The Rise of Silas Lapham;' 'The Prospector," by Ralph Connor; 'Pilgrim's Progress;' 'David Copperfield;' 'The Lady of the Decorations,' by Frances Little," etc. Stevenson tells of a Welch blacksmith who heard "Robinson Crusoe" read aloud and was fired thereby to learn to read. When he had mastered Welsh he could obtain no copy of the book he desired and so valiantly mastered English that he might pursue Robinson's fascinating adventures. The Chautauqua Course is not without its parallels to this moving incident.

It is in the relation of parents of little or no education to their children blessed with greater opportunities that the Chautauqua work demonstrates often its greatest useful-

ness. Many a mother who has felt her children drifting into a world of experiences beyond her knowledge has found in her Chautauqua reading the means wherewith to to enter more intimately into their lives. One experience out of many will serve to illustrate: "Above all others has been the pleasure of being able to keep in touch with my daughter in college as I could not have done otherwise. My C. L. S. C. books are proving so helpful in my boy's high school work. He calls often for the books of the English, also Greek and Italian years. The Chautauqua course keeps me in touch with the world, current events, and social problems generally."

Certain unkind critics have accused us of pretending to give a college education in the four years of Chautauqua reading. This we have never done. We have endeavored to cultivate "the college outlook," the attitude of the educated person toward life and knowledge. This some one has defined (we quote roughly) as "an interest in the best that has been thought and done in the world at all times and in all places." Too few college graduates acquire and maintain such an interest and it would be too much to assert that all Chautauqua readers achieve what a college education often fails to give. Yet some do; and college graduates are the first to acknowledge the fact when it comes to their notice. A reader writes us in some amazement of her experience with acquaintances whose educational advantages had been far greater than hers. One had recently returned from Europe and was recounting to her envious listener her experiences in Italian cities. "But," she added, "I could have enjoyed it more and could remember it better if I had known as much about those places before I went as you do!" Another writes: "We live in a university town and I am so glad the C. L. S. C. course keeps me from being wholly 'left out.'" It is not so surprising as would appear at first blush that C. L. S. C. readers should attain the college point of view. College students are usually young, and more interested in athletics and society than in culture. Too few of them acquire the habit

of wide general reading which is the basis of much of the best in education. A mature person of serious purpose may reasonably acquire almost of his own efforts alone, as educated an *attitude* toward life and literature as any but the exceptional college student. There is, too, this additional advantage in a reading course: it is not concluded with four years of work, but becomes, usually, a habit which is fixed for life. A college course too often ends with graduation and becomes little more than a memory.

The Chautauqua Course, however, is not a rival of the college. Many a boy or girl has, indeed, determined upon a college education only after the Chautauqua reading has fired a latent ambition. "The C. L. S. C. was the principal factor in forming my determination to go to college," writes one enthusiastic graduate of the course. Compare with this the following expression from one who had enjoyed educational advantages before becoming a Chautauqua reader: "Though already a college graduate, it seems I only learn to realize how little I know. The pleasurable side of the course, the opening up of new scenes, new fields of thought, becoming acquainted with new people, new lands, and new customs have brought mental development." A course of reading which inspires one student to a college education and supplies another, a college graduate, with further intellectual interests, may in all modesty proclaim itself to be at least flexible and easily adapted to varying needs.

How varied are these needs which the course serves is well illustrated by the experiences of thirty years. At first the Chautauqua course was designed primarily for those who read little and needed a helping hand. This was in a day when magazines were few, books expensive, and literary clubs for help and study far from common. The need of a reading course was thus great, and this need the Chautauqua Course satisfied as it does still today. Yet the course now serves as well a directly opposite purpose in helping a class of readers, which, in a day of cheap books and popular magazines, is increasingly large. The danger now is for many people that they read too much, in a haphazard fashion, tak-

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ing without discrimination whatever comes to hand. For such readers the course proves itself to be an excellent guide to the ordered reading of things worth while. It forms a nucleus of solid matter to which various floating particles of information readily attach themselves. The discursive reader becomes with wise guidance the orderly and intensive reader who fits each book and magazine article into its proper place in a cultural scheme.

Both types of readers, the one who is familiar with books, and the one who reads widely but not well, have testified to the benefits of the Chautauqua Course. Perhaps some other course of reading would have served as well; perhaps each one of us could frame a course for himself should he make the effort. But it is true, nevertheless, that most of us do not plan a course of reading to which we adhere. To such the Chautauqua Course proves a real blessing, for it is designed with care, it profits from the experience of years, and it affords just sufficient stimulus to hold its readers to a plan covering several years of effort. It transforms weak but good intentions into a habit. One of our correspondents writes: "The C. L. S. C. is absolutely the best thing known to keep one from that mental slouch which is liable to attack anyone after being out of school a few years." Another states: "Reading has a new meaning to me since taking the course. I have long felt the want of something besides padding that you get from the general news. My reading in magazines and elsewhere is more easily understood and therefore now more pleasurable." Yet again: "My reading is usually done in the evening after working hours, and since taking up the course four years ago I have read incessantly. Prior to that time I held many vague ideas, probably in common with others lacking a fuller and clearer knowledge, all of which have been dispersed and spread to the winds. With this fund of knowledge I have been able to discuss various questions with intelligence and confidence and my only regret is that I did not sooner avail myself of these opportunities——." A ranchman, one of the many isolated Chautauqua readers desirous

of keeping in touch with the world of books writes: "A wonderfully good thing the Chautauqua Reading Course has been for me. Four years away from town and seeing but few people will make a man pretty ancient if he doesn't take some pains to keep in touch with the world's life. The business of raising sheep demands lots of room and that means, get as far away from people as possible."

Sometimes the Correspondence Editor encounters a prejudice against the Chautauqua Course based on the assumption that it is designed only for women. Like most prejudices this is founded on a misconception. The Chautauqua Course aims to suit the needs of those desiring to improve themselves by reading and study, whether men or women. That more women than men find the leisure and inclination to pursue it is paralleled by the experience of our public high schools and bids fair to be demonstrated by our coeducational colleges. But the cause does not lie in the nature of the work itself as the following comments of male readers will demonstrate: "My schooling is very limited but I have read and studied a great deal. I studied law for four years in a private office and after examination was admitted to practice law in Oklahoma where the rules for admission to the practice of that profession are the most rigid of almost any State in the Union. The Chautauqua Course has broadened my horizon and I am not now lost and bewildered when opposing counsel, well learned in the world's literature, flash historical facts and literary gems in support of a contended or perhaps doubtful theory of law." Another reader, a traveling salesman, writes: "I have enjoyed the scope of the books and magazines, especially the magazine articles on criticism of Americans ['As Others See Us,' by John Graham Brooks]. Some of those criticisms still hold good in wayback districts of the Catskills, of Ohio, and of West Virginia. Where I have been drawn into conversation in hotel lobbies I have been surprised to find many topics mentioned by salesmen covered in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and in the books."

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In no sense does the Chautauqua Course, the aim of which is cultural, compete with the correspondence school, which seeks to train men and women to occupy positions in business and industry. Yet though it has no commercial ideals the reading proves oftentimes of great practical benefit as well as a source of pleasure and mental profit. One young man writes: "I consider the C. L. S. C. my college education. If it were not for the C. L. S. C. I would not hold my present position as business secretary of a Y. M. C. A." General culture, a fresh outlook upon the world of ideas, acquaintance with great literature, sympathetic insight into the social and racial problems of the day—all these may have no direct money value and yet serve to make life more interesting. Indirectly by keeping the mind out of ruts and freeing it from prejudice they may be of greater material value than their possessor is aware. Ministers, stenographers, social workers, and teachers tell us that the Reading Course serves to freshen and vary their interests. They profit thereby in the greater enthusiasm and efficiency with which they attack their daily tasks. But this is a side of its work that the Chautauqua management does not seek unduly to emphasize. It is content that its work has cultural value.

Not the least of its services, in the eyes of the editors of the course, is the pleasure which the books and magazine afford to many people whom bad health forbids the routine of daily study or whom other misfortune shuts off from the greater part of intellectual intercourse. "In spite of illnesses I have done my required reading. It served to pass many a lonely hour. My health is so bad that I am forced to be an individual reader." This is the experience of many. We fail sometimes to comprehend the full significance of the statement of the National Conservation Commission that "there are constantly 3,000,000 people seriously ill in the United States." That is to say, *one in every twenty-five or six persons, old and young, dweller in city or country.* We shall have justified our existence if we have brought some pleasure to a few of these unfortunates. * * * *

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The Correspondence Editor paused at this point to consult his memorandum. He had jotted down some twenty classifications that had appealed to him as representative of the various types of readers who derive pleasure or profit from the Chautauqua Course. Upon only half of these he had commented. He had said nothing of the many readers who had found in the pages of THE CHAUTAUQUAN their first introduction to the study and appreciation of art; of those who found the Reading Journies the best possible guides to foreign travel; of yet others who had developed an interest in the problems of civic betterment through the study of such books as Jane Addams' "Newer Ideals of Peace," or Professor Commons' "Races and Immigrants in America." Certain members of the C. L. S. C. had found the Course an improvement upon cards. Some derived comfort from books such as President King's "Rational Living," which helped them to get more out of life. Rabid patriots had found Emil Reich's comment upon the American War of Independence edifying though chastening. Circle members had learned to discuss disputed matters in a spirit of amity and had awakened to the realization that there was something to be said for the other man's point of view. These and others the Correspondence Editor felt he could take no further space to discuss without imposing upon his readers. But he realized as never before how varied an appeal the Chautauqua Reading Course makes to minds of different types. As the need, so the profit. This is as it should be, for if the course of reading were narrowly designed for a single class of readers it would be of less value even to these alone than it now is. Its merit lies in the di versity of its appeal, in the many avenues it affords to varied intellectual interests, all of them worth while. One concluding "testimonial" will serve to show what the course has meant to a single reader. Not many, perhaps, have found the reading helpful along so many lines as are here indicated; yet the same possibilities exist for all: "There is no doubt about the broadening influence of the C. L. S. C.

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It has had to take, for me, the place of a college course to supplement my school life, and has given me enough international sympathy and knowledge to allow enjoyable conversation with college graduates while keeping an open mind for all kinds of new acquisitions. Especially has it given me an interest in civic betterment, though the only means of helping in that line is through the men with whom I chance to talk. During the four years I have been connected with considerable settlement work, and in visiting or teaching the children and their families, sympathy for them was strengthened by the study of the various races. Also it has been an incentive to attend lectures that have proved most inspiring as they were needed in the report for recognized reading. And, finally, it has given me such an absorbing desire for 'things that are real,' that the fascinating 'story book' has taken a much lower position in my choice of books for leisure hours."

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# The Oldest Ruler in Europe

Felicia Buttz Clark

UNTIL within a few years, it was Christian, King of Denmark, who claimed this title. This genial octogenarian was called the Grandfather of Europe, because of the close relation which he sustained to the royal families of England, Russia, Greece, and Norway, and Sweden.

Good King Christian has now been laid to rest beside his wife in the old church of Roskilde, near Copenhagen, and Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria, a man of a totally different type of character, steps forward into the first rank.

Francis Joseph is now about seventy-nine years of age and has recently celebrated the sixtieth anniversary of his reign. Queen Victoria attained this distinction of celebrating her diamond jubilee, but very few of the European rulers have reigned so long as these two sovereigns.

The Emperor has had an eventful life, full of difficulties, of sorrows and misfortunes. He has found it hard to manage Hungary, of which country he is called king. The people have been restless, wilful and rebellious. It is said that they only continue their alliance with Austria because they love the old Emperor, and that as soon as he dies and his successor ascends the throne, they will break away entirely and become an independent kingdom or a republic.

The Emperor does not show any signs of departing this life, however. He is hale and hearty, full of spirit, devoted to his old friends and intensely interested in the political situation in the Balkans. His time is divided between the capital of Austria, the gay city of Vienna, where he occupies a magnificent palace, and Ischl, in the Salzkammergut, where he passes the summers in rest, if not seclusion.

A short time ago, a gentleman visited Ischl and, early one morning, was walking on a country road. Hearing the sound of horses' feet, he looked up just in time to see Francis Joseph driving in a plain carriage with no outriders



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Statue of the late Empress Elizabeth.

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The Emperor Franz Joseph.

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The Future Emperor of Austria.

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Peristyle of the Imperial Villa, Island of Corfu.

Statue of Achilles, Garden of Villa, Island of Corfu.

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or any sign of royalty. The old Emperor was alert, stalwart and full of health. He acknowledged with the utmost courtesy the respectful salutation of the American, who rejoiced at having had so fine an opportunity to see one who had been for sixty years prominent in public affairs.

This simplicity of action and manner is that which has cemented the tie between sovereign and subject. Many pretty little incidents are told to illustrate the jovial character of the Emperor. When the wedding of his only son, Crown Prince Rudolph, was being celebrated, the crowd was so dense that the carriages of the royal family could not go forward. The Emperor stood up, and in the utmost good humor called out in Viennese dialect: "Now, children! it is the wedding of the Crown Prince, you've come to celebrate, not his funeral and your own. Let us have room to breathe."

Laughing and merry, the crowd gave way and the procession went on.

Kaiser Franz Joseph fell in love with the Archduchess Elizabeth of Bavaria when she was a lovely girl of seventeen, and married her in 1854. Among the sorrows which have come to him was the sudden death of the Crown Prince, which destroyed all hopes of a direct succession to the throne and nearly broke his mother's heart. From that time, the Empress found relief for her grief in travel and study. She was a frequent visitor to England, France, Algiers, and Greece, and spoke fluently English, French, Italian, Arabic, Greek, and Hungarian as well as her native tongue, German. In the course of her wanderings, the Empress Elizabeth discovered a beautiful place of paradisiacal beauty on the Island of Corfu, in the Ionian Sea. Here she built the villa of Achilleion, where she found rest and peace. She decorated it with works of art and surrounded it with gardens of luxuriant beauty. After her tragical death at Geneva, by the hand of a cowardly assassin, the villa was sold to the Emperor of Germany, who with his family, occupied it for the first time last spring.

Not long ago, an article was published in a European

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paper, describing the habits of the kings and emperors, but dwelling particularly on their ability to get up in the morning. The Emperor Francis Joseph was the earliest riser of all his royal "cousins," and Emperor William came next. Franz Joseph is up before five o'clock and takes a walk after he drinks his coffee and eats a roll. He works hard until eight, when he takes a heartier meal. Work continues till luncheon, at twelve, and again until five o'clock, when he dines very simply.

The evening is devoted to amusements of a very mild type and nine o'clock finds the Emperor in bed. It is probably by observing this simple mode of life, with recreation in the open air, that the Emperor has retained his vigor and mental ability to such an advanced age.

The cordial congratulations which came to him on his Diamond Jubilee must have caused him great pleasure. He received visits from several of the rulers of Europe, who were entertained by him in that state for which the Austrian court is famous. Among his guests were the young King of Spain, a member of the Hapsburg family, and his English wife, Queen Victoria Eugenia.

If the love of children is the characteristic of a great man, then the Emperor of Austria stands in the first line. He not only loves them but is loved in return and his grandchildren and great grandchildren consider him their playmate and friend.

Once, driving through the streets of Vienna, the people pressed closely around his carriage, when a little voice called out: "I want to see the Kaiser!"

"So you shall," the Emperor responded, and was not satisfied until the child had obtained her desire.

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# One Idea of Chautauqua

THE following editorial and poem appeared in *Collier's Weekly* this year:

"When a name becomes popular, nobody can forsee what adventures it may encounter. The Chautauqua idea was an inspiration, reaching deep into the problems of education in a large democracy. So widespread was the acceptance of it that men everywhere began to use it for making money. A Chautauqua might be a park at the end of a trolley route, with trained ponies as the most subtle among the baits offered to the payer of a five or ten cent fare. This distinction between the real Chautauquas, carrying out the original intention, and the many circus-like imitations, should be borne in mind by the careful student of the feats performed by Mr. Walt Mason's Pegasus on this page."

PLANS OF A CHAUTAUQUA PROMOTER.

By Walt Mason

I'm the man who hires attractions for Chautauquas in the West,
And I'm always in the market for the choicest thing in freaks;
Each succeeding year's assembly, people tell me, is the best,
And I've just wound up a series spreading over twenty weeks;
And the program was a rare one: there were jugglers from Cathay,
And a poisoner from England, who was pardoned by the King;
But I want to beat my record, and I'm hunting freaks today
Who will elevate the platform when I open up next spring!
With the Higher Life in mind,
And the Uplift well defined,
Oh, I'd educate the masses—educate 'em till they're blind!

Ere I managed these assemblies I was running a musee,
And the critics all admitted that my Tattooed Greeks were fine,
And my stock of Bearded Ladies made the populace agree,
That I stood without a rival in my interesting line;
I have brought that reputation into this Chautauqua work,
And I'm using up my money and the riches of my brain
In the effort to uplift it! I am toiling like a Turk,
And the Cultured People tell me that my work is not in vain.
Seeking still the Higher Walks,
I am blowing in my rocks,
And I'll educate the masses with the sort of stuff that knocks!

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I am looking for attractions that possess that subtle charm
Which impels the ticket holder to a higher, nobler life;
I am hunting Mrs. Guinness of the little Murder Farm,
Who might lecture on "The Uplift of the Modern Rural Wife."
I've a line on Battling Nelson and the famous Angel Child,
And I may secure her husband if he proves he's not insane;
And perhaps the Turkish Sultan may be captured, for he's wild;
And his throne is getting shaky and the outlook gives him pain.
To the higher, nobler things
My aspiring spirit clings,
And next year I'll break the record, or I'll lose a pair of wings!

I have signed up Dr. Wiley and his famous Poison Squad
And they'll feed on prussic acid every day at three o'clock;
I've engaged a string of noblemen to come here from abroad,
And hitch up with native damsels who have bullion by the crock;
I've secured a Howling Dervish from his far-off desert home
(For it seems that queer religions just at present are the rage);
And a bunch of dukes and princes have been shipped to me from Rome,
And they'll give a Black Hand outrage every evening on the stage;
To the wholesome life and sweet
I will guide the straying feet—
Oh, I'll educate the masses—educate 'em and repeat!

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# The Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration

By Frank Chapin Bray

THE Mohonk Conference brings together, at the invitation of Mr. Danial K. Smiley, a selected company of persons distinguished in various walks of life, representing different points of view upon the special subject of international arbitration. Such a gathering is calculated to focus influential opinion on this method of handling international controversies. At the conference in May, this year, an observer could not fail to discern evidences of emphasis on numerous aspects of the problems of peace and war not always included in propaganda for arbitration.

The platform adopted by the conference (as noted in "Highways and Byways" editorial) urged serious study of and action toward limitation and reduction of armaments The conference also adopted a resolution in favor of considering measures for cooperation of organizations to make public peace sentiment effective as occasion arises, particularly at the national capital.

From the Chinese Ambassador, Wu Ting Fang, came the keen and subtle reminder of Chinese moral standards set up by Confucius and Mentius higher than those which our western civilizations are willing to follow when it comes to the question of war. The Ambassador also made it clear that he hoped modern nations could be educated up to the doctrine of *compulsory* arbitration.

Mr. James Bryce, the British Ambassador, diplomatically intimated that the newspapers which we are prone to blame for promoting war fevers after all reflect the prevailing spirit among the people, and pleaded for a better knowledge of each nation by other nations which would dispel suspicions:

> At this moment all the governments in all the great military and naval states are, I venture to believe, honestly desirous of peace. Not one of them but would lose by war

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far more than it could gain. Yet it is apparently possible for those who desire, from whatever motives, to stir up suspicion and enmity to succeed in convincing each nation that the other has designs upon it.

Every nation is conscious of its own rectitude of purpose and believes that its armaments are for its own safety and will not be used unjustly or aggressively. But each one is told that it must not credit with similar good intentions the other nation which is for the moment the object of its jealousy. Is not this one chief cause of the atmosphere of suspicion in the relations of the great powers, which leads them to go on creating the enormous armaments and levying the enormous taxes under which their people stagger?

Would not a better knowledge of each nation by the other nations do something to dispel these suspicions? Every nation must, of course, be prepared to repel all dangers at all likely to threaten it. But it should also try to ascertain whether the dangers it is told to provide against are real or illusory. Suspicion breeds suspicion, and nations have sometimes come to fear and dislike one another only because each was incessantly told that it was disliked by the other.

Thirty or forty years ago there was a good deal of this suspicion between Britain and the United States. Better knowledge by each nation of the other has extinguished that feeling and substituted for it a genuine friendship, which will, we may feel sure, at once recur to arbitration for the settlement of any question that may arise. Why should this not be done as regards the other powers also?

President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia, the presiding officer of the conference, in his opening address, had referred to the war-scare in England over Germany's naval program, as a species of emotional insanity, saying:

What reason is to be found in the nature of the German people, in the declarations of their responsible rulers, or in the political relations between Germany and any other nation, for the belief that the German navy alone, among all modern navies, is building for a warlike purpose? Those of us who feel that the business of navy-building is being greatly overdone may well wish that the German naval program were much more restricted than it is. But, waiving that point for the moment, what ground is there for the suspicion so widespread in England against Germany, and for the imputations to Germany of evil intentions toward England? Speaking for myself, and making full use of such

opportunities for accurate information as I have enjoyed, I say with the utmost emphasis and with entire sincerity that I do not believe there is any ground whatever for those suspicions or for those imputations. Nor has adequate ground for them been given by any responsible person.

It is difficult to see how any responsible English statesman who has read the majority and minority reports recently laid before Parliament by the Poor Law commission, can for one moment turn aside from the stern duty of national protection against economic, educational and social evils at home to follow the will-o'-the-wisp of national protection against a non-existent foreign enemy. It is the plain duty of the friends of both England and Germany to exert every possible influence to promote a better understanding of each of these peoples by the other, and to point out the folly, not to speak of the wickedness, of permitting the seeds of discord to be sown between them by any element in the population of either.

The alternative to press upon the attention of mankind is that of huge armaments or social and economic improvements. The world cannot have both. There is a limit to man's capacity to yield up taxes for public use. Economic consumption is now heavily taxed everywhere. Accumulated wealth is being sought out in its hiding places, and is constantly being loaded with a heavier burden. All this cannot go on forever. The world must choose.

Mr. Alfred Moseley of London, organizer of International Educational Visits, fresh from South America, however, took occasion to suggest that if suggestions are to be made on the initiative of the United States they be made to Germany.

The attitude of the Church toward Internationalism was vigorously attacked by Rev. Frederick Lynch of the Pilgrim Church, New York City, and considerable discussion followed, including reference to the special resolutions adopted by the last Federal Council of Churches (quoted in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March).

Justice J. J. MacLaren of the Ontario Court of Appeal described our international boundary relations as a remarkable object lesson. Senor Don Ignacio Calderon, Bolivian Minister, paid a tribute to the foreign policy of Mr. Root as Secretary of State. Rear Admiral Stockton reported on the

London Naval Conference of 1908. Hon. William I. Buchanan told of the practical methods of settling controversies, especially in South America. Richard Bartholdt, M. P., believed that President Taft could bring Emperor William and King Edward together to aver war. Beujamin F Trueblood gave a valuable Review of the Year's Progress in Arbitration.

More than fifty business organizations were represented at the conference by delegates and Mr. Charles Richardson of Philadelphia reported that nearly two hundred leading chambers of commerce and boards of trade in all the large cities of the country are cooperating with the Conference in promoting international arbitration.

Dr. Andrew D. White, ex-President of Cornell University, and chairman of the American Delegation to the First Hague Conference, presented a committee report showing that within four years more than 275 American colleges and universities have come to cooperate with the Mohonk Conference by providing occasions to bring before their student bodies the principal facts of the international peace movement, by means of lectures, addresses, student programs, debates, oratorical contests and special exercises. President W. H. P. Faunce of Brown; Harry Pratt Judson of Chicago; L. L. Hobbs of Guilford College, S. C., and S. B. Brooks of Taylor University, Texas, spoke at the educators' session.

A prize of $50 offered a year ago in the name of the Conference, by Chester DeWitt Pugsley of Harvard, for the best essay on international arbitration by a student of an American college or university was awarded to Mr. L. B. Bobbitt, a sophomore at Johns Hopkins. For the next academic year, Mr. Pugsley offers a similar prize of $100.

The work of Chautauqua Institution in home education regarding "The Friendship of Nations" was recognized by a place on the program of the closing session.

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# Jasper Douthit's Story

A BOOK of more than usual interest to Chautauquans everywhere is "Jasper Douthit's Story, the Autobiography of a Pioneer."* Mr. Douthit was the founder and still is the manager of the Lithia Springs Assembly, one of the most representative of the western assemblies and one which has kept close to Chautauqua ideals and has maintained from the beginning a C. L. S. C. department. The last chapters of the book are devoted to the Assembly and tell of the courageous struggle which has been put forth to make this institution permanent.

The recital of Mr. Douthit's ministry in southern Illinois is itself significant of the development of that pioneer life of which Abraham Lincoln must always remain the best example. The story of this life work is at times incredible and is often pitiful. Something of the spirit of the man has entered into this autobiography although only those who have known him and his work can adequately understand it.

The Foreword is written by Robert Collyer and the Introduction by Jenkin Lloyd Jones. The book is without chapter headings and the chronological order is not always followed but the book is interesting from beginning to end and is written in a style characteristic of the man who has lived a life, which as Dr. Jones says, "it would be hard to parallel in modern American life for its uniqueness, its historic value, its heroic persistency and its spiritual suggestiveness."

Jasper Douthit was born October 10, 1834, in Shelby County, Illinois, on a farm four and one-half miles from the town where he has lived the greater part of his life. His story of the early settlement of the country, of the illiteracy and bigotry of many of the people and of the harshness of the life is one which it is well for the present generation to read. His grandfather came from eastern Tennessee where he was the only man in the vicinity of

*"Jasper Douthit's Story: The Autobiography of a Pioneer." By Jasper Douthit. American Unitarian Association; Boston. 1909. 225 pages. 10 illustrations. $1.25.



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Colonel Crockett's home who could lift equally with him. His father for much of his life held some office of trust and was sheriff and ex-officio collector of the county taxes. Like many of his time he partook too frequently of intoxicating drinks and the first public work of Jasper Douthit was done in the temperance cause.

Of the early customs regarding drink, he speaks as follows:

"I have seen kegs of liquor placed at the polling place all day, free as water for everybody, and at night almost everyone would be more or less drunk, including the judges and clerks of the election. It was the custom sixty years ago here on Christmas and New Year's for neighbors to come together at our house and have what was called a whiskey stew and spree. A big iron kettle or pot (used for making soap and washing clothes) that held eight or ten gallons, was filled with whiskey and other stuff, and made hot and sweetened for men and women, and boys and girls to drink. This was the Christmas or New Year's treat. The decanter of "bitters" stood on the sideboard in many houses and the preachers who were being entertained drank before and after the sermon. When a small boy, I attended a sort of bar, a grocery store kept by my father where sugar, coffee, etc., and whiskey were sold, and felt honored in the doing until my eyes were opened to the horror of it." * * "In the harvest field we must drink liquor every time we drank water. Once in hay-making, when I was about sixteen years old I drank till I was so tipsy that I talked and behaved very foolishly. When I came to myself, I felt extremely mortified and vowed to God that I would never drink another drop. It was a hard fight to keep that vow. I was ridiculed and laughed at by almost everybody except my mother. They said I was a temperance fanatic, though I hardly knew what that meant. I had never heard a temperance lecture and knew nothing of taking the pledge, but I was ambitious to have good sense and grow manly, and I felt that liquor would spoil me."

The struggle of young Douthit for an education as told in his own serious way is worth reading. The first dollar he ever earned by pulling "movers'" wagons out of mud holes with a yoke of oxen was spent in a year's subscription to the *Phrenological Journal,* published by Fowler and Wells in New York City. He made his first start as a public lecturer by speaking on phrenology and kindred subjects. When he was sixteen years old, he had attended a district school only about nine months and most of that time was spent in reciting over and over again four times daily the A B C's and A-b, Ab's. His father, deeply embued with predestinarian Baptist ideas about education, did not look

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favorably upon his ambition. The only books that up to that time he had read were the Bible, Robinson Crusoe, and the Life of David Crockett written by himself. He wanted more books and without his parents' knowing it chopped wood on Sundays to earn money to buy them. He ordered the books from New York City by express and they came to Springfield, the nearest express office, sixty miles distant. As his father would not bring them on one of his return trips from Springfield, Jasper ran away from home with three dollars given him by the hired man and made the journey of ten miles on foot and the other fifty miles in the stage. His box contained books on self-education, the laws of health, and a phrenological bust by L. N. Fowler. After wandering about the city he obtained employment to drive a dirt-scraper on the railroad but almost backed out when he learned that the work was in Shelby County only about sixteen miles from his home. The next morning he started to walk to this place, forty-five miles away. After a month of work, mostly with Irishmen to whom he read "Uncle Tom's Cabin" and on whom he experimented with his phrenological bust, he took a contract for a job of shoveling dirt at so much per yard.

A little later his father came for him and he returned home on condition that he should be allowed to attend the new Academy which was then being built in Shelbyville. While here he taught a subscription school in arithmetic and writing and after two terms was engaged to teach in the primary department of the Academy. He had heard of the work of Horace Mann at Antioch College at Yellow Springs, Ohio, and longed to make his way there, but many of his friends thought the college was an infidel institution and its president a dangerous man. He therefore went to Wabash College at Crawfordsville, Indiana, where he worked and boarded himself on baked potatoes and graham bread and milk for six months. He became very homesick and inasmuch as his father offered to establish him in the book and drug business, he returned home.

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His courtship and marriage furnish an interesting chapter in his life. Miss Emily Lovell of East Abington, Mass., had contributed some verses to the *Ladies' Monthly Magazine* and the *New York Evening Post* which Mr. Douthit saw and in consequence entered into correspondence with her. They found that their ambitions and interests were mutual. In characteristic fashion, Mr. Douthit proposed:

"That we send our ambrotypes to Professor L. M. Fowler and let him decide our fitness for each other. He made a remarkably accurate 'hit' when he said the woman would be a better wife for me than I could be husband for her.

"'The young lady,' he said, 'is of high moral character, and she is talented, domestic, affable, playful, and very affectionate; but she is a timid, sensitive soul, and it would nearly kill her to be scolded. However, if you make up your mind to be largely guided by her counsel and conform to her nature, you can spend a happy, useful and mutually helpful life together.'

"I was very unhappy to think myself not worthy of such a talented, pure, lovely woman. I told her the worst faults which Professor Fowler mentioned, namely, my impulsive temper and self-will. I felt that I ought to give up the idea of wedding one so good. All the same, when we finally met, she said she would take the risk."

Mrs. Douthit proved to be a helpmeet in every sense of the word and much of the success of his ministry as he himself says is undoubtedly to attributed to her.

Mr. Douthit's connection with a man so great as Lincoln is of course to be noted. He heard him first at Hillsboro at the time of the famous debate with Douglas. He says:

"I remember what he said of Senator Douglas's theory of 'Popular Sovereignty,' that is, the right of the people to vote slavery up or down in the territories. 'The fact is,' said Lincoln, 'Judge Douglas's theory of popular sovereignty seems to me about as thin as the soup made from the shadow of a starved pigeon.' In the same speech I remember his saying: 'There is an honest old man down in Georgia by the name of Toombs. He boasts that he will call the roll of his slaves at the foot of Bunker Hill Monument. Dear fellow, he little knows the temper of the Northern people upon the subject of slavery or he would never make such a boast as that.'" * * *

"I have a clear recollection of Lincoln, as I first used to see him in the old hotel across the street from the court-house where he stopped during the terms of the circuit court in Shelbyville. I see the Great Commoner as he sat on the porch, southern fashion, when court was not in session, his long, lank limbs doubled up, or straightened out with feet propped up, while he read the paper or a book, or chatted familiarly with the old farmers or his fellow attorneys. He never told a story just for the story alone, but

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always to clinch an argument." * * * "Lincoln came once again to Shelbyville to make a speech after the organization of the Republican party. There were only about half a dozen persons in Shelbyville and vicinity who called themselves Republicans. They invited Lincoln to come to Shelbyville and advertised him to speak in the court-house. Most of the old partisans turned the cold shoulder and said they would not go to hear him. As the hour approached, it seemed as if there would be scarcely any one present. Then a few of his friends went to Lincoln and said, 'Let us not try to hold any meeting at the court-house this time, but just have a little quiet caucus in the back room of Mr. B.'s shoe-shop.' To this Lincoln promptly replied: 'Oh! we must go into the court-house according to appointment, no matter how few may come. We must not seem ashamed of our principles. They should be proclaimed from the house-tops all over the nation.'"

Of Mr. Douthit's religious experience there is not space to speak. He calls himself a religious wanderer until he found his own religious feelings expressed best in the Unitarian church. He took a three years' course in the Meadville Theological Seminary and returned to Illinois as a pastor of the church at Princeton. He remained there, however, only three months because he felt that his work was in his own home town and country. His mission as he loves to call it has been to the people of Shelby County where he has been one of the most influential citizens and leaders of public opinion. In his early life, he spent some time in Boston where he came into contact with Henry Ward Beecher, William L. Garrison, and Wendell Phillips. At Princeton, he had a very pleasant acquaintance with William Cullen Bryant, three of whose brothers were members of his congregation. In his own denomination, he has counted among his friends and most cordial supporters, Edward Everett Hale, Robert Collyer, and Jenkin Lloyd Jones.

As was natural with a man of his intense temperament, he was early interested in the anti-slavery movement. When he returned from Boston he vowed himself an abolitionist at a time when no one in his part of the state was willing to make such an avowal. In the eyes of his relatives and friends, "An abolitionist was a monster and now to think I had married a Yankee wife and turned abolitionist!" As the papers of the county refused to take his articles on the slavery question, he became the assistant editor of a new

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anti-slavery paper. He tried to enlist in the Union army but was so pale-faced and frail in body that the examining surgeon shook his head doubtfully. All through the war Mr. Douthit was the undismayed advocate of the Union cause in a community which was at least lukewarm and sometimes dangerously hostile. He got into trouble with the "Knights of the Golden Circle" and his life was threatened. In 1864 it was said that anyone who attempted to take the enrollment for a draft would be shot.

"'The Knights of the Golden Circle' were drilling in sight of my home on the prairie, to resist the 'Tyrant Lincoln,' as they called him. I would talk and reason with some of my neighbors, but many were glum and mum, and would give me no chance to talk with them. Under these circumstances, I was appointed to take the enrollment in the eastern half of the county. On receiving my commission I was offered a company, or regiment of soldiers, to be stationed in the county, but I objected to their presence, because I knew that in the counties where soldiers were present there had been riot and bloodshed. I was advised to start well armed, but I declined to do this. I determined to do the work peaceably, or die in the attempt." * * * "My plan was to go only to those I thought I could trust and get the names of the others from the trusty ones. This worked very well, except in a few instances where I made the mistake of revealing myself to foes instead of friends. Some had read the bushwhacker's libel in the papers and they believed their papers then more than they did their Bibles. It was just such ignorance and partisanship that made the Civil War possible.

"The first morning I went out to take the enrollment I went to the house of an old citizen who had heard, for he could not read, of the rumors about me. He was in the field at work. His wife kindly invited me into the house and sent the children after their father. He came, walking fast, and as he entered the room he snatched a gun from out the rack over the door, and holding it up, cried out, with some unquotable expletives: 'Now you get out and go home in a hurry, or you will be shot!'

"I arose and replied as mildly as possible, under the circumstances, calling him by name: 'If you wish to shoot me, pop away. But I don't want to hurt you, nor anyone else. This is all the weapon I carry,' showing him a little pen-knife, 'but let me tell you that I am not going home. I am going to do my duty to my country, and if I am killed there are many thousands to take my place.'

"'Well, Jasper,' said the man, 'I don't want to shoot you myself. I couldn't do it, anyhow, for your mother's sake. She is a good woman, but I am afraid you will be shot, if you don't quit.'

"One night after this there were a dozen shots fired through the open door of my house about midnight. As the last shot was fired I walked to the door in my night-clothes but the shooters dodged behind the hazel-thicket, and nobody was hurt. Until that time I carried no firearms and kept none in the house, although it was rumored and believed by many that I had secreted a lot of govern-

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ment arms in or near my house. A few days after the shooting I was in Shelbyville, when an old friend and captain in the army, who was home on a furlough, persuaded me to take home a six-shooter belonging to him, remarking that it was a dutv that I owed my friends to use it in self-defence, if attacked. It was loaded and I carried it home and practised with it at an object the size of a man about ten steps distant, until all the barrels were empty. I missed the object every time, but it was not the fault of the revolver. Then, laughing at myself for my folly, I laid the revolver away empty and made haste to return it to its owner in good order. That was the extent of my carnal warfare during all the 'Unpleasantness.'"

Of some of the early customs which have passed away one of the interesting ones was the custom of having a funeral sermon preached some months or years after a death.

"Then the preacher made no reference to the dead but a long harangue mostly of scripture quotations to prove his pet doctrine and comfort the elect. I recall nothing tender and uplifting that was spoken on such occasions, and yet there was something in the deep sincerity of the preacher and the general spirit of the service that struck me with awe and made me want to be good. This custom of no service at funerals shocked newcomers. I have heard Yankees and Irish-Catholics exclaim: 'What a queer people these! They bury their dead as if they were no more than dogs!'"

It is to the Lithia Springs Chautauqua Assembly that Mr. Douthit looks for the real establishment of his work in southern Illinois. These springs, about four miles from Shelbyville, came into Mr. Douthit's possession in 1889 as a part of his father's estate. Says he of this inheritance:

"I was not expecting to inherit any real estate, and I had made up my mind to be content without it. In fact, I rather enjoyed singing, or trying to sing, as I rode on horseback, or walked to my appointments, those verses of the pioneer Methodist preacher:

'No foot of land do I possess,
Nor cottage in the wilderness.'

"When the partitioners of the estate set apart this Lithia Springs ground to my share, I was grateful in a sense, yet, in another sense, I was a little unhappy that I could not now honestly sing the old song."

It is the testimony of all that the place is ideal for camping and assembly purposes. Frances E. Willard was interested in the enterprise from the beginning. Booker T. Washington has written of it:

"I have visited few spots anywhere in the world that possess such charms, such an influence for good in every direction as is true of Lithia Springs. And Commander Ballington Booth testified: 'I have seen some beautiful assembly grounds. But I must say that I have yet to see a place that is more picturesque and

seems more fitted by nature for the purpose to which this spot has been consecrated.'"

It is too long a story to trace the struggle which has carried this enterprise to the present moment. That Mr. Douthit has undoubtedly the right conception is to be seen in this statement concerning this work:

"What is Chautauqua? This cannot be answered in a sentence, nor in several pages. Chautauqua is in some respects what the people make it. It is, briefly stated, an educational institution at a summer resort home under positive religious auspices, where people of all sects and no sect,—those with church home and of no church home,—dwell together and unite to help bring the Kingdom of God into each other's hearts and homes, and learn to make the most of themselves and their opportunities, forgetting differences in the endeavor to uplift and ennoble all work. It is a bit of heaven on earth, a foretaste of the millennium, where all dwell together in unity and singleness of purpose, a vacation social, restful, recreative, instructive, all with the best moral and religious influences. Time is counted by the Chautauqua meeting and outing, and whole families, and whole neighborhoods even, look forward to it each year as little children do to Christmas, as a wholesome, social, happy, joyous, earnest and instructive coming together. Think, then, what Chautauqua means to a hard-working community of farmers, for Lithia Springs is essentially a farmer's Chautauqua, and the families and others who badly need this vacation and change of work. Many who help in the schools and on the program make this their vacation time, giving their services. For instance, the orchestra that has served us so acceptably, has almost entirely given its services in this way for years, the members taking this as an outing time from regular employment." * * *

Chautauqua is also a place where, by coming in touch with the great souls of earth, many are quickened to higher life. Chautauqua is religion with a practical emphasis, and liberty with a religious emphasis. Poor people and rich people will mingle at Chautauqua who hardly ever meet in church. Countrymen and townspeople,—people from various sections in this and other lands will meet on a common footing. In this way the gospel is preached to thousands whom the churches do not reach."

The assembly grew out of the basket picnics,—annual occasions, when Mr. Douthit and others would speak—and out of his desire to have a place far from the influence of the saloons where on special occasions like the Fourth of July the people might come together. The Springs were on the public road and many contended that they must not be fenced from the public. It was also necessary to clear the ground, erect the necessary buildings and overcome prejudice in many quarters. It was only by the utmost

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persistency that all difficulties were met and partially overcome. A suggestion of Bishop McCabe led Mr. Douthit to ally himself with the Chautauqua movement and to transform his summer meeting into a Chautauqua Assembly.

The claims for uniqueness for this Chautauqua are as follows:

"Several things mark this Chautauqua as unique, notably: (1) It is probably the only Chautauqua Assembly begun among farmers and in a rural district, miles from any village or city. (2) It was the first Chautauqua in the world, so far as I can learn, to invite and welcome our Roman Catholic friends to equal privileges on its platform and give them the making of the program for a day; also the colored people were given the program. (3) It is the only one, that I know of, which began as an anti-saloon crusade and encampment, but also gives each political party a day's program. (4) It is the only Chautauqua conducted under Unitarian auspices, and it should, therefore, be non-sectarian in spirit, principle and purpose, according to the traditions of the Chautauqua idea. (5) It was the first to give a day's program to the Congress of Religion."

The autobiography of this pioneer is well written and well worth reading. It is the story of the humanizing of a community by the devotion of a whole life. The struggle to maintain an institution like the Lithia Springs Assembly is deserving of the support of all those who admire courage, perseverance, and loyalty to the Chautauqua ideal.

# The Assembly and the C. L. S. C.

By Meddie Ovington Hamilton

ALL movements have some underlying motive; the heart of the Chautauqua Movement is the C. L. S. C. An Assembly should be organized about this central thought; and both management and people should give it prominence and enthusiastic support. This may be urged not only for the sake of the C. L. S. C.—which goes without argument,—but for the Assembly's own sake.

I wish briefly and in a concrete way to set forth (out of a somewhat large experience with assemblies in various states) the practical values of the C. L. S. C. for the Assembly.

First, those who are reading the Chautauqua literature

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through the year become interested in all things Chautauquan and especially in the success of their home assembly, which represents for them the larger movement; hence, they become a permanent clientele, faithful in attendance and loyal in support.

Again these year-round readers not only enlarge their own horizon but they elevate the mental and moral tone of the community. So an assembly founded upon the C. L. S. C. will find it easier to lay stress upon the educational values, and obtain larger response to all genuinely educational appeals that it makes.

I have in mind a young assembly just past its second session. In the councils preparatory to organization, it was determined to start right, hence the C. L. S. C. was made the heart of the movement; and other departments, such as Physical Culture, Elocution, Art, Literature, Bible Study, W. C. T. U., and Woman's Work were organized and strongly supported. The C. L. S. C. enrollments for the first session were sixty-nine. The next year this grew to one hundred and twenty-eight, and the other departments increased in number and support. The platform was richly appreciated, for the people were in the attitude of mind to receive the best.

Such assemblies are in no danger of pandering to idle tastes; they will not drift into vaudeville; nor will they be lured by any promise of mere sordid commercialism, because they see that from its traditions and its very nature a Chautauqua must represent moral and intellectual values, else its life is insecure.

In such assemblies the department work will be strong, and will offer to the people means of growth, which is the only assurance against satiety,—satiety which otherwise might come after a few years of even the best chosen platform attractions. When people are interested and growing, they do not clamor to be entertained; all things good and vital entertain them.

The real Chautauqua Assembly may depend upon financial backing in the day of stress. A certain assembly has

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weathered through its twenty-ninth session. It has suffered almost annually, the last decade or so, from floods. But it has been an assembly where the Chautauqua Ideal has dominated. The character of its citizenship has been moulded by this ideal; the children have grown to maturity under its potent influence and they realize now what it will mean to have their children grow up with such an institution in their midst. So, last June, when the rains descended and the floods came, three men went out and sold within three days, before the opening of the Assembly, seven thousand two hundred and fifty dollars' worth of stock, as a guarantee fund. The first week, the sessions were held in the city, in an opera house and surrounding churches; the second week they moved into the park, and finished what the community said was "the best Assembly ever." In an enthusiastic mass meeting, in less than fifteen minutes' time, more than a thousand dollars' worth of tickets were sold for the session of 1909. If the assembly is made an institution of educational value, the community will not permit it to lapse, nor fail of proper financial support.

Not only is the immediate territory influenced, but surrounding centers are uplifted by the C. L. S. C. A nucleus enrolled at the assembly will grow into a flourishing circle, which in turn becomes part of the assembly's permanent constituency.

From a city in which were fourteen C. L. S. C. circles and an Alumni Association comprising many of the representative citizens, they used to go a hundred strong to their nearest assembly forty miles away, and camp in families, or parties, for the entire season. They had a street named for their city, and here neighbors and friends enjoyed the pleasures of sociability, together with the fun of camping out, and all the good things of the Assembly program. These "hundred strong," be it remembered, were C. L. S. C. readers who through the year were planning their outing at the assembly.

At a young but great assembly of the Middle West, there are circles in nearly all the surrounding centers, and

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these come in colonies to camp during the entire season. In one part of the park you may find the A—town Colony; over the stream will be found the B—ville Colony; and in various parts of the spacious grounds may be found these enthusiastic groups, made up of the most progressive people of their respective centers. There are even Rural Route circles and their encampments at the assembly. The enrollment here in 1908 was one hundred and fifty-three, enough to make the home reading work justify itself merely by direct financial returns, its general strengthening influence remaining, therefore, as pure gain.

Is it not then expedient from the assembly's viewpoint, to emphasize the C. L. S. C.? Can an assembly afford to slight it?

What a travesty upon the Chautauqua ideal is that question so often heard, "Did your assembly pay out?" It is not asked, "Do your schools pay out?" "Do your churches pay out?" The real Chautauquas do pay out in the long run. It may take a cycle of six or a dozen years, one season running behind, the next running ahead, but finally they reach a place of permanence and steady development. One wise assembly of many years' growth, simply floats any deficit, if this does not exceed fifteen hundred dollars, makes no *to do* about debt and discouragement, but exercises the optimistic spirit which Chautauqua fosters, and the next season it usually evens up. Its security is a moral security like that of the schools and churches referred to above. The people are committed definitely to its support and continuance.

Another assembly struggled for years with annual deficits, but now that it has passed its majority, it not only "pays out," but has grown in departmental and platform strength, and it annually puts several hundred dollars' worth of improvements into buildings and grounds.

The C .L. S. C. makes for sound development and for permanence. No assembly which intends to build for the future, which desires to do the best for its own lasting growth, and for the uplift of the community, can afford to ignore this question of home reading work.

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## THE C. L. S. C. CLASSICAL YEAR.

Every four years the C. L. S. C. announces a Classical Year, and the coming season of 1909-10 marks such a point in our four years' course. This new year will be no less "classical" than some of its predecessors, but it will be different. Graduates who have already followed the course for eight, twelve, some of them for twenty years, find it hard to let go, even of this oldest of subjects. The truth is that the wonderful "classic" age has a fascination for us. It was a time when the world went to school to a race of geniuses and the old problems still have an irresistible attraction. We like to compare them with those of our own time, and see how much we have gained—or lost.

So we start in this year with "The Greek View of Life." And let no one falter because Greece and the Greeks may perchance seem very remote. A teacher of experience and enthusiasm, Mr. G. Lowes Dickinson of Cambridge, England, is to introduce us to that people. He will open up to us the life and the literature, the history and the art of the Greeks so that we shall understand how Plato and Sophocles and Aristophanes and the people for whom they wrote looked upon life; why they found it worth living and why all that the Greeks said and thought and did still holds such a large place in our modern world.



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In this Classical Year we are to make a first hand acquaintance with Homer, if Homer, not in the original Greek, can be called "first hand." Every Chautauqua reader is to have the privilege of reading the Iliad and the Odyssey; not merely scraps from them, but the great poems themselves with but such slight abridgement as will leave out nothing essential. It will be a fine chance to compare translations, to match Bryant's and Palmer's and Pope's against those of the English scholars which we are to use, and to examine Chapman's also which stirred Keats to write his famous sonnet:

> "Then felt I like some watcher of the skies,
> When a new planet swings into his ken."

It will be interesting also to see how much of the imaginative faculty we still have left, and if it shows signs of failing we have only to borrow a boy of the right age and read our Homer with him.

Of course the Classical Year implies Rome as well as Greece. We have all dipped into Roman history in years past, but to many of us it is only a memory of conquering armies and political struggles until the Empire goes down with a crash and the barbarians come in. Recently a very important book has appeared: "Social life at Rome in the age of Cicero." Up to this time there has been no compact little volume on the life of this interesting time when the Republic and its institutions still lived. There are some things in the story of the Roman Republic which remind us of the United States in the twentieth century. The book is based upon a very entertaining collection of the letters of Cicero, for of them more than nine hundred have been preserved. "In these," the author says, "we have the richest treasure house of social life that has survived from any period of classical antiquity." We learn of the business methods of those days, of the governing aristocracy, how woman was regarded in Roman society, how life was affected by the enormous slave population, about education, holidays, and amusements and the problem of the underpaid masses which still confronts the world. After getting

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the Greek point of view, Chautauqua readers will enjoy comparing the Roman outlook upon life. The contrasts between these two points of view and our twentieth century ideas will make the classical year full of live topics.

"The Friendly Stars," the fourth book of the course, seems very fittingly associated with the Classical Year. It bridges the gap between the old world and the new, for Homer and Socrates, Virgil and Cæsar knew Mars and Arcturus and many of their celestial comrades. The telescope and the spectroscope have given to us in these later times an inkling of the staggering distances which reveal to us the miscroscopic part we play in the universe. Nevertheless the stars even under these awesome conditions play a friendly part in our lives and the recognition of their individuality is a distinct addition to our enjoyment of the outside world. Every reader who honestly cultivates the acquaintance of his celestial neighbors this year will add a new interest to his life.

In our series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for the coming year classical connections will carry us far back of Homer, for the Reading Journey through Egypt will open up some of the treasures of centuries long back in the days when the sphinx first began to weave her spell. Professor Breasted who adds to his years of study in Egypt the gifts of a story teller, will take us through the land of the Pharaohs rich in wonders and still yielding up its treasures to the archaeologist. A superb collection of photographs will make this one of the most notable of all THE CHAUTAUQUAN Reading Journeys. We have been reminded by recent events how closely the past is linked with the present in Egypt for Mohammedanism, long entrenched in the land of the Nile, is yet to be reckoned with.

The evident interest in the study of Art, constantly shown by members of the C. L. S. C., will be transferred this year from painting to architecture. The beautiful forms of temple and mosque, aqueduct and amphitheater, arch and monolith as they have been developed by the Mediterranean races give us an architectural setting for the Class-

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ical Year. As an expression of the life of the time they will attract us, but more especially for the sheer enjoyment to be found in the study of beautiful proportions and the grace and harmony of form which have made these splendid works among the marvels of the world for all time.

The final note in the year's course is that of the "eternal feminine." To trace the history of "Woman in the Progress of Civilization" from the days of primitive man down through the ages will be a fascinating pursuit. Her readjustment to conditions as new problems come in with changing civilizations is worthy of careful study, and out of this slow evolution we may come to have a truer idea of her significance as a force in the world today. Certain it is that the attitude of a race toward its women is a key to its place in the progress of civilization. Thinking people today find much cause for concern in the confusion of ideas on this subject. This series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN by Mr. George Willis Cooke will be a contribution to a more intelligent understanding of this question which is as old as the Garden of Eden. Nevertheless it urgently demands a new solution at the hands of each generation and it is for us to grasp it adequately so far as it concerns the time in which we live.

ORDER OF STUDY FOR THE COMING CLASSICAL YEAR.

The subjects of the nine articles by Mr. George Willis Cooke on "Woman in the Progress of Civilization," which will run from September, 1909 to May, 1910, are as follows:

I. Maternal Society and its Institutions. II. Paternal Institutions especially in Greece. III. Roman Law and Early Christianity. IV. Woman under Feudalism and Chivalry. V. Women and Domestic Economy. VI. Modern Individualism and Woman's Rights. VII. Women under Machine Industry. VIII. Social Idealism and Suffrage for Women. IX. Woman's Influence on Civilization.

The chapter titles on a Reading Journey through Egypt by Professor J. H. Breasted are:

I. The Story of the Nile Dwellers and Their Land. II. Alexandria and Cairo. III. Heliopolis and Memphis; The Pyramids and the Sphinx. IV. The Voyage up the Nile: The Tombs of the Barons; Abydos and Denderah. V. A Bird's-eye View of Thebes: Karnak and Luxor. VI. The Temples and Tombs of Western

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Thebes. VII. El Kab and Edfu. VIII. Aswan and Philae. IX. Abu Simbel and Nubia.

The articles on Historic Types of Architecture by Professor Pilcher:

I. Egyptian. II. Assyrian. III. Greek. Part I. IV. Greek. Part II. V. Roman. VI. Early Christian. VII. Byzantine. VIII. Romanesque. IX. Moorish.

The books have been assigned to the following months:

October, November, December, and January. "The Greek View of Life," "The Homeric Stories."

February, March, April, and May. "Social Life at Rome," "The Friendly Stars."

REVIEW OUTLINE ON DUTCH ART.

Although our studies of Dutch Art and Artists were concluded with the May number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, readers who have found this series a source of great pleasure will look upon it as a mere introduction to their enjoyment of Dutch Art. The Review Outline of Dutch Artists in the later pages of this magazine will be found useful for reference and can readily be detached and preserved in a separate note book for use in visits to picture galleries or in preparing for a trip abroad.

A NEW SPECIAL COURSE ON ART.

Another very recent special course which will be welcomed by graduate students is the new art course by Mrs. George B. Zug entitled "The History of Sculpture and Painting in the Nineteenth Century." Mrs. Zug is the author of the C. L. S. C. special course on "The History of Painting from the Renaissance to the Nineteenth Century," which was prepared last year and has been well tested during the past winter to the great satisfaction of its students. These two admirable courses have the benefit of the latest and best books on the subject and the most complete arrangements for the use of illustrative material. Many graduate circles will find this a rare opportunity for the study of the history of art and they can do a service both to Chautauqua and to other clubs by calling attention to them. The new special course hand book will be sent free to any

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Typical View in Kingston, Jamaica.

address which is furnished to the office of the Chautauqua Press at Chautauqua, New York.

THE C. L. S. C. AT AMERICAN CONSULATES.

One of our American Consuls who has been a member of the C. L. S. C. in Newark, Rochester, New York, and Washington finds that the course loses nothing by being transported to Kingston, Jamaica. It seems particularly fitting that an American institution like the C. L. S. C. should be acclimated in our various foreign consulates and Mr. Van Dyne's letter shows that he is giving it a chance in Jamaica:

I regard it as one of the fortunate things of my life that I was led to take up the systematic course of reading prescribed in the Chautauqua program. I have been particularly interested this year in the studies in European literature. I was so fortunate when reading the chapter on "Eugènie Grandet" as to find Balzac's work in a bookshop here, and I have had the pleasure of perusing it in the original French. This added greatly to the interest.

I send you by this mail a typical view here, also a photograph of the "Commercial Reading Room" which I have established at the Consulate in which I have nearly one hundred different American trade journals, magazines, and newspapers on file. This feature is unique and is very effective in increasing American trade,

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and is also of considerable interest to visiting Americans who wish to keep in touch with events in the United States. I have added a copy of THE CHAUTAUQUAN to the collection in my reading room.

AN IMPORTANT WORK ON DUTCH ART.

Attention is especially called to a valuable work on Dutch art just republished in this country. It is entitled "Great Masters of Dutch and Flemish Painting," by William Bode. Beginning with Rembrandt and Hals, followed by the masters of Dutch *genre* painting it discusses all of the leading Dutch artists of the seventeenth century, with a discernment which makes the volume one of the best critical works on Dutch painting. The book is illustrated with some forty admirable halftones. It includes the two greatest Flemings, Rubens and Van Dyke, but otherwise is given up entirely to the Dutch masters. The author is a German scholar of distinction, the leading authority in Germany on Dutch Art, and his book is the product of a lifetime; the most important discussion of Dutch art since Fromentin's "Old Masters of Belgium and Holland."

Reading Room in American Consulate, Kingston, Jamaica.

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Edward Everett Hale. Born April 3, 1822, Died June 10, 1909.

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EDWARD EVERETT HALE, COUNSELOR OF THE C. L. S. C.

Chautauqua pays her tribute to the memory of Dr. Hale, with a grateful heart. For nearly twenty-five years he has been a right royal "Counselor." Memory goes back to those early days of 1885, when he first assumed his duties as Counselor, and delivered the Recognition Day address to the graduates of that year. It was characteristic of him that thenceforth he identified himself with the movement in his whole-hearted fashion, referring to "our" Chautauqua plans and to the members of "my" class, the Class of '85, who gladly claimed him as an honorary member. Since then his visits to Chautauqua have been like golden milestones which for many Chautauquans have marked the passage of the years. And to those who have carried the responsibilities of directing the work of Chautauqua, his sympathetic counsel, always genuine and never perfunctory, has been deeply appreciated.

In the year 1885 he wrote for THE CHAUTAUQUAN a very remarkable series of articles entitled "How to Live," and he often told how years afterward he met a young man who said to him, "Dr. Hale, you once saved my life," and then explained how years before in a rough cabin in the far South, sick and despairing he had resigned himself to death, when his eye fell upon an old copy of the magazine and listlessly turning the pages he came upon Dr. Hale's message: "If you are a child of God rouse yourself and stand upright." The words gave him courage and he took up life again.

Dr. Hale's human sympathy was the secret of his power. It had a dynamic quality which quickened people to the expression of their best selves, and the great fraternity of Chautauquans have loved and honored him as a counselor to every one of them. They came to him with their problems and he reached out in his friendliness and met them more than half way. Time and again he embodied some of his Chautauqua experiences in practical "tracts:" "How to Conduct a Round Table," "The Language of the Time,"

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and "Reuben's Experience." These have carried to thousands their unique message; for his story-telling instinct pervaded everything that he wrote and gave it power. In the days when Chautauqua had to meet the criticisms of conventional thinkers Dr. Hale's article in the *Century Magazine* opened the eyes of a wider public to the existence in their midst of new educational opportunities for out-of-school people.

His intense love of country which created the immortal "Man without a Country" knew no provincial or sectional limitations, and he cherished Chautauqua's influence as a national institution making for the unity of the republic. He used to say in his happy fashion that he had to come to Chautauqua at least once in four years to keep in touch with the world. And in his "Tarry at Home Travels," published in the *Outlook* a few years ago, he said: "If you have not spent a week at the annual Chautauqua you do not know your own country. There and in no other place known to me do you meet Baddeck and Newfoundland and Florida and Tiajuara at the same table; and there you are of one heart and one soul with the forty thousand people who will drift in and out there—people all of them who believe in God and in their country."

It was not strange then that his interest in world peace gave him the title of the Nestor of the Peace Cause in America. He lived to see some of his "ideals" which were condemned by diplomats as "impracticable" actually realized. It seems fitting that his last message to Chautauqua should have been the closing article of our series this year on the "Friendship of Nations," written with that long backward perspective so characteristic of him and pervaded with the sure optimism with which he looked into the future. And so he went out of this life repeating his favorite old hymn, closing with the lines:

"My steadfast heart shall know no fear;
That heart will rest on Thee."

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THE DANTE CLASS POEM.

As announced in the June Round Table the Class of 1909 has selected for its class poem two sonnets from Longfellow's Introduction to the Divine Comedy. Every member of the class will want to commit to memory the two beautiful stanzas. Even persons who are persuaded that they can never remember poetry will find it an interesting experience to read these two sonnets each day between now and Recognition Day. They may be surprised to find how the melody of the verse will cling to them.

O star of morning and of liberty!
O bringer of the light, whose splendor shines
Above the darkness of the Apennines,
Forerunner of the day that is to be!
The voices of the city and the sea,
The voices of the mountains and the pines,
Repeat thy song, till the familiar lines
Are footpaths for the thought of Italy!
Thy flame is blown abroad from all the heights,
Through all the nations, and a sound is heard,
As of a mighty wind, and men devout,
Strangers of Rome, and the new proselytes,
In their own language hear thy wondrous word,
And many are amazed and many doubt.

Oft have I seen at some cathedral door
A laborer, pausing in the dust and heat,
Lay down his burden, and with reverent feet
Enter, and cross himself, and on the floor
Kneel to repeat his paternoster o'er;
Far off the noises of the world retreat;
The loud vociferations of the street
Become an undistinguishable roar.
So, as I enter here from day to day,
And leave my burden at this minster gate,
Kneeling in prayer, and not ashamed to pray,
The tumult of the time disconsolate
To inarticulate murmurs dies away,
While the eternal ages watch and wait.

A NEW READING JOURNEY.

Spain makes its entry into our collection of Reading Journeys with the August CHAUTAUQUAN. The Swiss Journey last year provided entertainment for many Chautauquans in the late summer and Spain is an equally alluring country for an August jaunt. Even the Chautauqua reader who has to keep steadily at his daily work all summer may

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forget the cinders and dust of a daily railway journey when he takes along for company Don Quixote and Sancho Panza or wanders through the Alhambra with Irving or follows the Cid in the joyous freedom of his semi-barbarous age. In our studies of Woman in the Progress of Civilization next year we shall touch upon the status of the Spanish woman. A summer journey in her enchanted land will serve to explain many things about Spanish life today. Professor Fitz-Gerald of Columbia University, who is preparing the series, has had the advantage of thorough knowledge of the country, and THE CHAUTAUQUAN will contain also helps of various kinds, lists of proper names with pronunciation, bibliographies, outlines, etc. As in the case of previous Reading Journeys C. L. S. C. graduates as well as other readers may secure a seal for reading the series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, with two additional books which will be specified in the August Round Table, and the filling out of a brief review paper sent upon receipt of the fee of fifty cents.

A NEW SEAL FOR GRADUATES.

Many graduates will welcome the announcement that a new seal is to be offered for reading THE CHAUTAUQUAN only. such graduates being required also to fill out a brief review paper upon the required readings. This will encourage many who want to do some special work outside of the regular course, to keep up their interest in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and so be constantly posted upon all that concerns Chautauqua. This announcement does not affect those who are taking the entire course for the current year, since they are already receiving credit. Stated concisely the new arrangement is as follows:

Any graduate who enrolls for the work of the current year, either as a subscriber to THE CHAUTAUQUAN or by the payment of the separate enrollment fee of $1.00, can earn one or two seals in either of the following ways: (1) One seal for reading the full course and stating the fact without filling out memoranda; (2) a second seal for filling out memoranda on the full course; or, (1) one seal for reading the magazine and filling out memoranda upon the same; (2) a second seal for reading the four books and filling out memoranda on the same.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCE BOOKS FOR THE "WOMAN" SERIES.

Supplementary to the Bibliography of "Woman in the Progress of Civilization" given in the June Round Table, Mr. George Willis Cooke has given the following titles. A few of the books are out of print but will be found in some libraries:

Womankind in Western Europe from the earliest times to the Seventeenth Century. By Thomas Wright. Woman and her Era. By Eliza Woodson Farnham, 2 vols. The Influence of Woman on the Progress of Knowledge. By H. T. Buckle, in his Miscellaneous and Posthumous works, as well as in a separate edition. Woman in the Golden Ages. By Amelia Gere Mason. Woman: Her Position and Influence in Ancient Greece and Rome, and among the Early Christians. Woman's Work in the Church. Historical notes on Deaconesses and Sisterhoods. By John Malcomb Ludlow. The Conflict of Christianity with Heathenism. By Gerhard Uhlhorn. The Social Results of Early Christianity. By C. Schmidt. The Legal Protection of Women among the Ancient Germans.—A Dissertation by William Rullkoetter. Women under the English Law, from the Landing of the Saxons to the Present Time. By Arthur Rackham Cleveland. Women in English Life, from Medieval to Modern Times. By Georgiana Hill. Women under Monasticism: Chapters on Saint-Lore and Convent Life between A. D. 500 and A. D. 1500. By Lina Eckstein. The Women of the Renaissance: A Study of Feminism. By R. de Maulde la Claviere. British Freewomen: Their Historical Privilege. By Charlotte Carmichael Stopes. Woman's Work in America. Edited by Annie Nathan Meyer. The Woman Question in Europe: A Series of Original Essays. Edited by Theodore Stanton. The Emancipation of Women and its Probable Consequences. By Adele Crepaz.

## NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

"As a finishing touch to our series on 'The Friendship of Nations,'" said Pendragon, "I can't imagine anything more effective than the recent Chicago Peace Congress. I wish you might all have been there. It's worth while to remember that in a democratic country like ours the development of local sentiment is very important and at the Peace Congress you would have realized how the world has been moving forward through the quiet but enlightened efforts of the thousands of men and women who are committed to the great movement. We've been asking some of our circles what they have done to lend their strength to the Peace cause, and we find that many localities are awake to its importance. A very large number of circles have not responded by means of the return postal card sent them and we must conclude that they are not actively interested.

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"Yet there are some encouraging indications of awakening interest in this practical movement. Through the influence of the circles, Peace Sunday has been observed by special sermons in various towns in a number of states. Excellent beginnings have been made in working through the local papers. The circle in Tipton, Iowa, has conferred with the editor of the town paper regarding the possible publication of 'The Human Harvest.' At Steelton, Pa., arrangements are to be made for the publication of several articles. At Colfax, Illinois, the circle put its peace material at the service of a High School contest where it was sure to exert a very decided influence. The Coudersport, Pennsylvania, Chautauquans arranged to furnish no less than three local papers with peace material. This was thoroughly characteristic of a circle from William Penn's state, which has more Peace societies within its borders than any other state in the country. The *Marion Standard* of Marion, Alabama, was supplied with Peace contributions gleaned from THE CHAUTAUQUAN. In Cincinnati, through Chautauqua readers who are teachers, the way is being prepared for future developments in peace teaching in the schools. At Peru, Indiana, the circle will observe International Peace Day. Their program is always posted in the city library and in this way they suggest ideas to other clubs which are on the lookout for live topics.

"A number of circles report that they have sent for copies of Dr. Jefferson's article for distribution. This is a splendid peace document. Surely every Chautauquan here present can write to the International Conciliation Association, 501 West 116th street, New York City, and ask for three or four copies which will be furnished without charge. Then if you will distribute these among your local editors and ministers, writing a personal note with each, asking them to help educate people in this direction, you will help to hasten the day when the country will rouse itself on this subject. For the good name of Chautauqua every member of the C. L. S. C. ought to be in the front rank in such a movement. Many other circles will observe Peace day at their regular meetings. Some have already done this in past years, prominent among them being Marshalltown and Creston, Iowa. One naturally looks to New England to lead in reforms so we are not surprised to find that the Seaside Circle of Belfast, Maine, takes the lead in having observed International Peace day ever since it was made a C. L. S. C. Memorial day four years ago.

"Before we leave the Peace Question let me read this postal card. It comes from a circle in New York State and no doubt expresses the feeling of many others:

'We have carefully considered the articles and have read supplementary articles on the subjects. However we have done nothing further considering that while Mr. Roosevelt says "the way to keep

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peace is to be prepared for war" and every nation is building Dreadnaughts to the impoverishment of some, that Peace Congresses are not very practical.'"

"I should say," remarked an Illinois member, "that this was just the time when a Peace Congress would be 'practical.' It seems to me that this Chautauqua circle is just in the position to change public sentiment for they are evidently surrounded with people who hold one point of view. If they will send to the American Peace Society in Boston for some facts on the other side, they will be amazed at the growing public sentiment which looks in the other direction. I'm inclined to recommend a new motto to the C. L. S. C.: 'In time of apathy and ignorance prepare for enlightenment!' You see I went to the Peace Congress!"

"Here is a fine report," said Pendragon, "from Peru, Ind. We've already alluded to the fact that this circle has been celebrating Peace day. They have thirty members all taking a very active part. They assign the lessons to different members who provide for the reading of poems, book reviews, etc., and a critic who gives a pronunciation test exercise before they take up the reading. I note that they are using THE CHAUTAUQUAN only. This is well of course as a beginning if the circle can do its work in no other way, but I trust that in the near future they may test the full four years scheme. There is something in being part of a great whole, and the four years plan has a large educational purpose behind it. If the members feel it better to confine the circle meetings to the magazine work that would seem a good plan. But each newly enrolled reader ought to read those four books at home during the year and at the end of four years be a Chautauquan for life. It's not a question of being busy. It's being convinced that the thing is worth while. Ask an graduate about this. But meanwhile these Peru Chautauquans are to be congratulated upon their fine beginnings and their public spirit."

"May I say," commented a member from East Cleveland, Ohio, "that we have a live circle here? Its beginnings go far back into the early days of Chautauqua. We still have graduates in our membership, but many are reading the course for the first time and as a member of the class of '86, I greatly enjoy the fresh atmosphere which always pervades our circle." "Here in Scranton, Pennsylvania" remarked the president of the circle, "we have been doing good work without any special difficulties for about twenty years. The reading matter is of such an interesting nature that we feel that we could not afford to drop it."

"There is a problem which constantly arises," said Pendragon. "This time it comes from an Ohio circle. They say: 'As in all circles, some members always have their lessons and a great deal to

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contribute to the class, while others do not even do the required reading.' Who can advise in this case?"

"As I look at it," responded a circle leader of experience, "the psychology of the situation is this: Any circle which has to carry along a body of people who constitute merely an audience is at a disadvantage. Unconsciously those uninformed, silent listeners are a drag on the meeting. They contribute nothing and while their attitude is probably not a critical one, no circle can carry on its work in the presence of such an audience without an imperceptible feeling of being in an unsympathetic atmosphere which necessarily robs the working members of their spontaneity. Now my solution is this: Try what the C. L. S. C. calls the 'Canadian experiment.' You'll find it described in a little pamphlet called 'How to Organize' sent out by the C. L. S. C. Office. Our circle had much the same difficulty and this plan worked like a charm. If a circle is going to amount to anything every member must do his share and if he doesn't find it worth while, then he would better drop out, at least that is our circle's point of view."

"Perhaps," said Pendragon, "it's some such problem as this that the leader of one of our New York State Circles refers to when he says, 'Some of our members do much more talking than others and it is well they do!' Evidently something is needed to wake up the silent ones. The Circle meeting ought to be a give and take affair and not a series of short or long monologues."

"We are not quite in line with the rest," reported a member from Kenmare, North Dakota; "because we have just begun to be Chautauquans and we started with an American year. But we are glad to be at the Round Table and we have enjoyed our year greatly. Our circle has twenty members and we've had two years of previous experience as a study club."

"We are in much the situation as the Circle in Peru, Indiana," laughed a member from Riverhead, N. Y., "and like them we seem to be having a very good time with our twenty members in spite of the fact that we are not quite living up to our Chautauqua privileges! Some day we shall be serving out diplomas to our whole membership but just now we are working up to them gradually. I have the full set of books and four of our number are reading them. They are to present them in the form of reviews to the rest of the class, and who knows what inspiration may result! The circle always meets at my home and we find the studies most interesting."

"As for us," said the delegate from Holden, Missouri, "we read everything in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and the required reading as well. Yes, we're all busy women, but our president is a member of the Class of '88. You know when you get under the tutelage of an

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old Chautauquan you're perfectly sure to 'win out,' as my boys say."

"The W. I. T. Club of Cincinnati reports a very congenial set of ten members," said Pendragon. "They are 1912's and intend to take the full course. With their name and the wisdom which is frequently an accompaniment of it, they ought to be shining examples to all the other 1912's. We are proud of them already."

"Out of our forty-eight members, twenty-five are graduates," said the Santa Clara, California, delegate; "but that doesn't mean that we are neglecting the new class, for ten new members joined in October. You see we feel our responsibility to the rising generation of Chautauquans. We meet at our president's home, which is a large one, and our members all take their turns most cheerfully. Besides our weekly study meetings we have once a month a general review day, with a fine program, six hostesses and a closing social hour. This combination of hard work through the month and sociability at regular intervals holds our circle together splendidly."

"Our circle is an illustration of good leadership." The speaker was from Hartford, Connecticut. "We're known as the Blue Hills C. L. S. C., named from the neighborhood where we meet. Our hostess invited us to meet with her last autumn and made Chautauqua seem such an altogether desirable thing to her guests that in February we formally organized. We represent various classes, have our reading well up to date and shall contribute members to the graduating class both this and next year and we hope to many other classes in the indefinite future."

"I'm hoping to have all our members come to Chautauqua in 1910," said the delegate from Atlanta, Illinois. "It's the best way I know to show them what a wonderful movement the C. L. S. C. is. We started three years ago with the Gladstone Class and this year we are quite flourishing with eighteen. Six of the seven originals were 1910's. We're a busy lot of home keepers. Several of our members come from two and a half miles to four miles in the country. We have thoroughly enjoyed the work this year and have had so many things presented in a new field. We feel our vision has been considerably broadened and that we are seeing things more as they really are and were. I think it an advantage to meet at the same place each week. Each one slips into her favorite place and we just revel for two hours. We are a most enthusiastic crowd!"

"You may like to know how the C. L. S. C. fits into a small rural community like ours," said the delegate from Ohio: "Morning Sun is a little village of one hundred inhabitants. Five of our eleven members live in the country. We meet every two weeks in the homes of the members, taking turns in conducting recitations, reviews, etc. Sometimes we have papers on assigned topics. Life in a country village is somewhat circumscribed but with the telephone, rural delivery, etc., we feel that we belong to the world and

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are glad for the broader vision that the C. L. S. C. affords. Though this is the first year that we have had a circle here, eight of our number have been to Chautauqua, some of us repeatedly. Three of our members are graduates and we expect to have a larger circle next year."

"For three years our teachers' circle has been at work," reported the delegate from Bristol, Tennessee, "and we find the interest this year greater than ever. There are fifty-four members. We meet in the Y. M. C. A. once a month and have a fine program, a critic being appointed each month by the president. Teachers also report monthly to their superintendents as to the reading of the course."

## REFERENCE OUTLINE OF DUTCH PAINTING.

**1. Frans Hals and the Portrait:**

*Dutch painting a modern art compared with that of Italy.* Dutch art as a distinct development does not appear till the seventeenth century. Previous to this Dutch and Flemish artists had worked in a miniature-like way with small brush strokes, timidity in drawing the human body and over-abundance of details.

*The Peace of Utrecht in 1579 made Holland a free Protestant Nation.* The Flemings, sprightly and imaginative in temperament and Roman Catholic in religion, continued to paint large altar pieces. The Dutch more phlegmatic and serious, cut off from the artistic possibilities of church decoration devoted themselves to portraying the life of the people. The seventeenth century school of painting became, after Italy, the greatest of history.

*The portrait-painter's problem*: He must produce a harmonious and beautiful unity. The Italian achieved this chiefly by line and pattern, the Dutch painters by light and shade. The picture must also be so related to the limits of the frame that the effect will be beautiful. The portrait must be lifelike as in nature. The portrait painters began with simple problems. First the head and shoulders, afterwards the hands to aid in interpreting character, and much later they turned the head and body and finally added various accessories characteristic of the sitter's occupation.

*Paul Moreelse* (1571)—typical of the portraitists immediately preceding Hals. Every detail is rendered with the utmost accuracy. The painter paints what he knows is there but not what his eye and mind grasp when he looks at an individual.

*Frans Hals* (about 1580-1664) painted a portrait as the sitter appeared to him. He left out small details and focussed attention on the face and pose of his subject. This broad manner of seeing was carried further by Rembrandt and Velasquez. Hals first discovered it and applied it to portraiture. Hals' style of painting is also different from the smooth strokes of his predecessors. He used broad, long strokes which seem confusing close at hand, but are effective at a distance. In this mastery of the brush he has had no superior. His skill and precision make the brush strokes of such size and shape, color and tone that he gives the impression of nature and a lifelikeness unexcelled. He was born of Dutch parents in Antwerp, studied under Van Mander in Haarlem. His first important

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picture is dated 1616, "St. Joris Shooting Guild." We have no early works in which to trace the formation of his style. "The Laughing Cavalier," painted about 1624, shows the careful painting of details before he developed his later broad manner. "The Nurse and Child," also characteristic of this period. "The Gipsy Girl," in broad style, is one of a famous group of studies of Dutch types, yet so individualized as to be portraits. Hals, very fittingly called the "Laureate of Laughter," has also rendered serious moods adequately though not with the profound manner of Rembrandt. Hals is a realist. Hals' great portrait groups in the Museum at Haarlem include eight pictures with life size figures representing shooting guilds or governing bodies of public charities. Chronologically arranged they illustrate the growth of his style. The groups are skilfully arranged so as to show all the figures, since each man paid his share to be represented. Admirable use of color. Masterly painting of black stuffs. The hands expressive in their gestures. Increasingly "broad" technique.

*Judith Leyster* (about 1600-1660). At Haarlem and Amsterdam. Admitted to membership in the Guild of St. Luke in Haarlem. Later married to Jan Molenaer. "The Drinker," painted in 1629. Her works attributed to Hals until 1893, her cipher having been mistaken for his. Much like Hals in her work, yet with a decided style of her own.

**II. Rembrandt and His pupils:**

*Rembrandt*—(1606-1669). Born in Leyden of well-to-do burgher parents. The extent of his education uncertain. At fourteen he began his studies under the painter Swanenburch and later under Lastmann at Amsterdam. Returned to Leyden at an early age to work and study on his own account. In 1632 he painted for the Hall of the Surgeons in Amsterdam "The Anatomy Lesson." A newly awakened interest in this science led Rembrandt to portray this phase of the life of his time. The picture is far superior in simplicity and dignity to those of his predecessors. It established his fame. More than forty portraits belong to the work of the next two years. The precision of drawing, thinness of painting and lack of atmosphere illustrate early characteristics of his work.

About 1640-42 his style of portrait painting became artistic studies of color and light and shade, not merely individualized likenesses. The "Night Watch" illustrates this change of style. Light and shadow bring certain figures into prominence. Odd devices of dress are utilized. There is a sense of life and movement. A great work of the imagination, with an absence of that realism shown in "The Anatomy Lesson," Vander Helst's "Officers of the Guild of St. Adriaen" and the similar picture by Hals, where each figure is given equal importance.

*Fromentin's theory of Rembrandt's two natures*: A "realist" of consummate skill and an "idealist," an original genius, "a magician in light and shade." "The Syndics of the Cloth Guild" represents the blending of the two styles. The picture treated broadly, the paint substantial, the color deep, subdued and harmonious, black and white richly handled, and the picture pervaded with atmosphere.

*Qualities of his portraits*: Skill in the use of gesture, as in "Anslo consoling the Widow," suggesting the deeper things of life. Illustrated also in "Christ at Emmaus." Portrait of himself about 1640 (National Gallery) rich in color, luminous in atmosphere with the soft gold and amber tones, light and shade in flesh tints deli-

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cately rendered. Compare with this the Vienna portrait showing the spiritual growth of a man in middle life.

*The Seventeenth Century produced unapproachable masters of painting*: The Flemish Rubens, the Spanish Velasquez, and the Dutch Rembrandt. Much the same development from precise workmanship and brilliant color, to breadth of handling, mellow color and penetration of character. The greatest of all masters of light and shade, not as an end in itself as with Leonardo and Correggio, but as a means of rendering character.

Rembrandt's Life. 1632 "The Anatomy Lesson" to 1642 the "Night Watch" the period of his greatest prosperity. His wife Saskia died in 1642. His growing originality estranged his clients. Large expenditures for properties, social ostracism on account of Hendrickje Stoffels and his own impractical temperament led to bankruptcy. His unmeasured capacity for work has left us some three hundred etchings, fifteen hundred drawings, and five to six hundred paintings, on every class of subject. Early attracted to Biblical subjects he became the greatest of all religious painters. Power of expressing reverence in pose and gesture. Dramatic use of light and shade. Skill in composition. He developed the art of etching so that he remains after three centuries the greatest of etchers.

**Gerard Dou:**

The most successful of Rembrandt's pupils. The tediousness of his methods as an exact, precise, portrait painter led him to take up figures. "The Negress" a successful example of this style. His "niche pieces" became favorites and also the "Hermit" theme. Characteristic are night pieces; the famous "Night School" one of the best. His overelaboration, precise drawing and elaborate finish with lack of imagination place him far below Rembrandt, although his realistic, matter-of-fact style triumphed for a time.

**III. The Painters of Domestic Scenes:**

*Luxury followed peace in Holland.* The painters portrayed the easy elegant life of the well-to-do, and also the home life and daily occupations of the peasantry. *Genre* in English usage signified a picture of small dimensions representing some domestic or intimately human scene. Dutch painters of these small pictures often referred to as "The Little Dutchman," the old Italian strove for beauty; the Dutch *genre* painters for expression of character; not the depths of character, but that which concerned itself with the trifling incidents of life, the play of light on walls and furniture, draperies and metals, and made something new and beautiful of whatever they depicted, a work of art.

*Gerard Ter Borch, the Younger*—(1617-1681). Born in Zwolle. Displayed unusual talent in childhood. His father, himself an artist, placed him under Pieter Molyn of Haarlem who influenced him in favor of Dutch subjects rather than imitation of Italian art. At eighteen he went to London and later visited Italy, France, and Spain. He settled in Amsterdam for a time and then in Münster where he painted many portraits of important personages, and his famous "Peace of Münster," eighteen inches in height, containing carefully and delicately painted portraits of sixty persons. In 1648 he visited Spain, receiving many honors. In 1654 married and settled in Deventer and remained there until his death in 1681. Some eighty of his pictures are left. *Qualities of his art*: Possessed a wide acquaintance with European art, but preserved his own artistic individuality. Excelled in the painting of portraits and portrait groups, chiefly of small size. Painted many likenesses of himself

and family. Floor and ceilings in his many pictures of upper-class life usually plain. Light entering from some source not indicated brings foreground into prominence with background in semi-darkness. Few accessory objects. Composition effective. Dark and light objects well balanced. Delicacy and expressiveness in the drawing of figures. Rich coloring.

*Gabriel Metsu*—(1630-67). Born in Leyden, a pupil for a short time of Gerard Dou, and influenced by Jan Steen and later by Rembrandt in Amsterdam where he died in 1667. Over one hundred and eighty of his pictures are left. Like Ter Borch painted "high life" and at his best ranks with him. More versatile, painting outdoor and indoor scenes and with less success, religious subjects, and like Steen pictures of low life. Work uneven. Low-class subjects less carefully handled. In high quality of work Ter Borch excels in this group. In variety and adaptability and human interest Metsu leads. More of Rembrandt's spiritual quality than any of his fellow artists. Portrait studies like "An Old Toper" show his fine rendering of character, harmonious coloring, etc.

*Pieter de Hooch* (1630-?)—Born in Utrecht, worked at The Hague at Delft and at Amsterdam. Influenced by Rembrandt but achieved a very original style. He and Ver Meer of Delft painters of light for its own sake. Truthful portrayals of life; both in and out of doors. The effect of light as it falls on tiled floors and walls, through a casement or seen in vistas through an open door. Cheerful color effects in his portrayal of middle-class life. In later life portrayed the wealthier classes, but with the same striking effects of color and light.

*Jan Ver Meer or Van der Meer* (1632-?)—Born in Delft, somewhat influenced by Rembrandt. A leader among the artists of his own city. His pictures popular and widely known in his day, yet his name was forgotten and his work overlooked for two centuries, being mistaken for De Hooch's. Brought to light by French critics. Like De Hooch a student of light, usually represented as coming through windows at the left, while De Hooch's comes from many sources. De Hooch's colors strong brick reds, velvety black and Naples yellow and intense blue sky; Ver Meer's delicate lemon yellow and cool blue sky. The beautiful blue gives the impression of a luminous atmosphere. Drawing more accurate and delicate, a sense of beauty beyond that of his contemporaries. Aside from these four masters are Gerard Dou, Casper Netscher and others. But an overabundance of details, smooth and metallic workmanship, undue emphasis upon the story and superficiality give them lower rank, though many of them produced most worthy works.

**IV. The Painters of the Peasantry:**

*In early Italian and French paintings genre scenes introduced as accessories in religious pictures.* Among the earlier Dutch artists before Ter Borch only peasants, beggars, and venders of wares were so portrayed. Ter Borch was the first to portray exclusively the gentler classes. Metsu, De Hooch, Ver Meer were at their best in scenes of refinement. But another group of artists depicted the other side of Dutch life. Subjects less attractive but treated by true artists of consummate skill and esthetic temperament. They painted man in his relation to nature.

*Adriaen Brouwer* (1605(?)-1637.). Born at Oudenarde in Flanders. Early training under Frans Hals at Haarlem; then in Amsterdam, and Antwerp, imprisoned as a spy, released by Rubens.

Led a wandering life and died very young. Qualities of his art: Chiefly tavern scenes and the Dutch boor. Subjects often vulgar. Early pictures crowded and vociferous. Later his art more restrained. Sincere and true to life. Notable in his portrayal of character. The greatest colorist of this group.

*Adriaen Van Ostade* (1610-1695). Born in Haarlem and worked with Brouwer in Hals' studio. Set up his own studio. Very like Brouwer in his early pictures. In his middle period something of deep warm coloring and magical chiaroscuro. "The Rembrandt of *genre* painters." Later pictures thinner and colder. Painted steadily till his death at the age of eighty-five, leaving nearly four hundred paintings in oil besides water colors, drawings and etchings. "Peasants at an Inn" typical of his best work. Sincere and natural, lifelike in pose of figures, subdued lighting, and warm color with careful painting of still life make this a true work of art. Ostade was akin in spirit to Millet, who was doubtless influenced by his work.

*Isaak von Ostade* (1621-1649). A pupil and younger brother of Adriaen; painted peasant interiors, but later devoted himself largely to winter landscapes with people. Inferior in quality and color to his brother and not comparable to the best landscape painters.

*Jan Steen* (1626-1679). The son of a well-to-do brewer. Born in Leyden and lived there until his death. Led a struggling life, often poor and in debt. Owned or leased two breweries and in his last years kept a tavern. He possessed a remarkable combination of qualities; at times spiritual as Rembrandt, again coarse as Brouwer or refined as Metsu. Sometimes as great a colorist as Ter Borch. He alone of the "Little Dutchmen" equally successful with high and low life; clever in composition; wonderful in his weaving together of tones and colors, facile and sure in his touch as Hals. Remarkable in his interpretation of child nature. Steen uneven in his work but judged by his many successes in his list of five hundred pictures he is unapproachable among the "Little Dutchmen" for variety, dramatic gifts, invention and knowledge of character high or low.

*Nicholas Maes* (1632-1693). A pupil of Rembrandt, an important portraitist and a born genius. "Grace before Meat," painted at sixteen, a masterpiece. His most charming work consists of his painting of peasant women. No master has portrayed old age with more sympathetic feeling.

**V. Landscape and Marine Painters:**

*The landscape painters of Holland the first group to render nature for its own sake.* Landscape in other schools served only as an accessory. With Rubens, Nicholas Poussin, and Claude Lorraine the figures often very small, but the dominant theme was the human or divine, not the landscape. The Dutchmen took their canals and dunes and villages as their subjects. Earlier schools painted trees in detail leaf by leaf. The Dutchmen treated them as masses of green shot through with light and shade. Earlier schools lacked definiteness; they produced the "generic" tree. The Dutch painters produced portraits of oaks and poplars, willows and even lilies and grasses. Lack of variety among the early artists in portraying nature. Landscapes show no distinction in time of day, seasons or weather, evenly distributed light, unsuccessful in rendering the tex-

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ture of clouds, earth, water, etc. The Dutch painters infinitely varied in their interpretation of nature.

*Jacob Ruisdael* (1628-1681). Son of Isaac Ruisdael, a frame maker. Nephew of Solomon Ruisdael. Born in Haarlem, moved to Amsterdam and died in an almshouse. The greatest of the Dutch landscape artists. Four or five hundred of his pictures remain. "Haarlem from the Dunes of Overveen" painted more than twenty times with ever varying effects. Cloud shadows heighten the effect of the sky. The famous "Windmill" picture shows another favorite type. "The Oak Forest" with the dead beech in the foreground, waterfalls and the stormy sea show his skill in handling stormy skies and agitated waters. Other favorite themes were the beach at Scheveningen, the quiet valley of the Rhine, Dam of Amsterdam, with canals, gates, bridges, etc. Solemn and majestic treatment of his subjects. Romantic temperament. Also chose subjects unusual to Holland, waterfalls, ruined castles and mountain scenery. Fromentin interprets the personality of the artist: "An austere dreamer, of warm heart and laconic and taciturn spirit."

*Meyndert Hobbema* (1638-1709). Even less known of his life than of Ruisdael's. He died at Amsterdam and presumably was born there. Gauger of foreign liquids. The painters of landscapes less appreciated by their countrymen than the *genre* painters, and they could get only small prices. A painter of quiet scenes formal in arrangement and balanced carefully such as "The Avenue Middleharnis." Often used diagonal form of composition as seen in the "Watermill." "The Village Street" less formal and flooded with sunlight. He and his contemporaries showed to later artists the effect of painting in masses, of cloud shadows in the foreground contrasting with the bright sky. Hobbema made his sunlight flicker through trees and upon rocks and tree trunks.

*Adriaen Van de Velde* (1635-1672). Born in Amsterdam; studied landscapes under his father, William Van de Velde the Elder, and Jan Wynants. Studied figure painting with Wouverman and animals with Paul Potter. He painted figures into the landscapes of his contemporaries, but was himself distinguished for landscapes and animals and one of the best of Dutch etchers, as his twenty-six plates testify. His "Beach at Scheveningen" illustrates his skill in painting clouds.

*The Sombre tones of many Dutch pictures* are not wholly due to the climate. These painters chose lower tones for the sky as easier of imitation; the foreground necessarily was darker. Some painters used a darker color first and then brighter. Time has brought up the under color. Chemical changes also take place in the pigments.

*Chief Marine painters.* Willem van de Velde, Jan van de Capelle, Simon de Vlieger, Hendrick Dubbels, and Ludolf Backhuysen. The last was an uneven painter, often working below his level. De Vlieger one of the best. The group in general treated the accessories of the picture better than the sea itslf. Willem van de Velde the Younger perhaps best known of all the marine painters. Executed many large canvases, but his smaller paintings more successful.

*Predecessors of this school of which Jakob Ruisdael and Hobbema were leaders.* Esaias van de Velde (about 1590), Jan van Goyer (1596-1666), Jan Wynants (about 1615), Solomon Ruisdael (about 1600). Allaert van Everdigeh (1612-75), and Aert van der

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Neer. Jan van Goyen the most distinguished. Introduced method of painting nature followed by the later masters, and by the beauty and truth of his paintings, exerted influence over many other painters.

**VI. The Animal Painters, Painters of Architecture and of Still Life:**

*Paul Potter* (1625-1654). Born at Enkhuisen, lived in Amsterdam and studied with his father and later in Haarlem. Uninfluenced by any of the great Dutch artists. Early studied animals. Removed to Delft and then to The Hague. Later returned to Amsterdam patronized by Dr. Nicholas Tulp. Fame extending beyond Holland in 1652. Died at twenty-eight. "The Young Bull" painted when he was twenty-two. The fashion favored over-elaboration and smooth finish, characteristic of this picture. An accurate draughtsman; the bull is individualized; more a display of patience than of artistic qualities. His smaller pictures more pleasing because his limited methods better suited to small canvases. "The Cow reflected in the Stream" and "The Dairy Farm near The Hague," the setting sun casting long shadows and delicate precision of workmanship show him at his best; but composition faulty, a scattered effect. "The interest of his pictures objective. No human personality." Not a great artist, but an imitator of nature.

*Albert Cuyp* (1620-1691). Lived near Dordrecht, a man of means. Except Rembrandt the most many-sided of all the Dutchmen. Still life and animals, landscape and marines, portraits and historic paintings. Landscapes of great variety, marines better than most contemporary marine painters. Horse fairs as well as Wouverman, birds equal to those of Hondecoeter, interiors of churches, equestrian portraits. A creative artist of high rank. The Meuse valley with sunshine, and cattle and horses a favorite subject. First period influenced by Van Goyen. Ships at anchor in a quiet scene flooded with sunlight. Second period his own peculiar style, river scenes with figures; third period deteriorates under influence of Wouverman. His rendering of animals "broad" in manner, living and breathing, not "brittle" like Potter's. Fond of contrasts in his figures and in colors. His animals lacked movement as compared with modern masters. In the "River Scene" the glowing landscape, tranquil river, and sense of atmosphere show his masterly qualities.

*Philips Wouverman* (1619-1668). Born in Haarlem. Famous for his paintings of landscape and figures, especially the horse; more than six hundred pictures. Inferior to Cuyp and Ruisdael. A man of talent but not of genius.

*Other Painters of Animals*: Adriaen van de Velde studied under Paul Potter, carried on his traditions but shows an advance in depth and warmth of coloring, brilliancy of atmospheric effect. Work more artistic and refined than Potter's. Jan Asselyn (1610-1660) painter of "The Enraged Swan." Aside from this fine example he belongs to another group, namely:

*The Italianisers*: Men who sought the romantic element in the classic ruins, gay colors and brilliant skies of Italy. Asselyn, Jan Both, Nicholas Berchem, Karel Dujardin remained in Italy for years. Important artists but of the neat, precise type, leaving a sense of unreality in their work.

*Still Life and Architecture.* Seventeenth Century Holland produced many artists of skill and taste who devoted themselves to

still life. Difficult to appreciate by illustrations. The lack of personality which is felt in such work applies in a measure also to architectural painting. Three of the best painters, Berck-Heijde (1638-98), Houckgeest (1639-51), and Emanuel de Witt (1607-92) started a school revived at the present by Bosboom and Matthew Maris.

*Supremacy of Seventeenth Century Dutch Painters*: In sincere interpretation of their native land; mastery of composition; and rendering of form: the Florentines the great students of human form; the Dutchmen studied how to suggest volume, bulk, texture of animals, anatomy of trees and rocks and earth, shape and movement of clouds and the arch of the sky. They became chronologically the first of the great national schools of pure landscape.

**VII. Modern Artists: Israels and Mesdag.**

*Decadence of Dutch Art* from end of the seventeenth century to beginning of the nineteenth. European art of this time imitative and affected. Thirty years of classicism under the French David sought inspiration in the classic world. Ignored color. Took their models from antique sculpture. The Romanticists followed. Feeling and expression based on medieval subjects, subordinated drawing to color, pose and dramatic expression. Both schools looked to the past. Nineteenth Century ideals came in with the Barbizon School in France and with Israels and Bosboom in Holland.

*Johannes Bosboom* (1817-1891). Seven years older than Israels. His career more modest but truly influential. Painted with fidelity to nature. His treatment of church interiors suggests De Hooch or Houckgeest and his lights and shadows, Rembrandt. Presents his subject pictorially; cold grey walls warmed by sunlight and costumes of worshippers. His sincere and delicate art and perceptions of truth and beauty uplifted the ideals of the rising generation of painters.

*Joseph Israels* (1824—). Born at Groningen, entered his father's banking house, but considered becoming a rabbi. His artistic inclinations led him when twenty to study at Amsterdam under Kruseman. The master taught him to paint stilted canvases, but advised him to study Rembrandt. A year later went to Paris and entered studio of David, then of Delaroche. Classical and Romantic influences resulted in canvases of the "grand historical" type. Exhibited on his return to Holland in 1848 "Aaron Discovering the Corpses of his two Sons," etc. An illness sent him to Zandvoort on the dunes to recover and he discovered new subjects in the lives of the people. In 1862 he exhibited in London "The Cradle" and "The Shipwrecked Mariner," the foundation of his international reputation. Israels' human sympathy and the universality of his themes make a strong popular appeal and his artistic effects reveal him as a master of the brush. His skill harmonizes subject and environment, expresses itself in deep tones and luminous shadows, portrays children in their awkward attitudes, characteristic gestures and fleeting expressions. In his earlier period handled light and shade as did the old masters, but modern studies of outdoor light show him abreast of his times. His drawing suggests character rather than anatomy. His painting represents his own method, but suited to his individual style of work. The representative artist of his country in modern times. Earliest work: careful handling and lack of emotion; then historical subjects with "Romantic" element; finally the "return to nature."

*Younger Artists.* A pupil of Israels was D. A. C. Artz (1837-90), who painted cottage interiors. Even more successfully treated

by Albert Neuhuys (1844). Christoffel Bisschop (1828-1904), born in Friesland, has depicted the peasants, a striking colorist and a realist. B. J. Blommers (1845) portrays the peasantry in their happier moods. Richard de Hoog (1867) shows the influence of Israels in his cottage interiors, but individual in his own color effects.

*H. W. Mesdag* (1831). Born in Groningen. A banker until 1866. Visited the studios of Alma Tadema and William Roelofs in Brussels. Two years later a sojourn at Norderney changed his career. In 1871 sent a large marine to the Paris Salon, which brought a letter from Millet. The leading marine painter of Holland. His greatest gift the ability to "make a picture," skill in selection and arrangement. His favorite theme the lull before the storm. His importance as a pioneer in marine painting is very great.

**VIII. The Nineteenth Century Painters of Landscapes and Marines:**

*J. B. Jongkind* (1819-1891). Born in Latrop near Rotterdam and went early to Paris, studying under Eugène Isabey. The first Dutch painter to be distinctly modern in treatment of light and atmosphere. Held in high respect by French painters and critics, but paintings did not sell readily until after his death. A connecting link between the Barbizon painters of 1830 and the painters of light, the "Impressionists." He was unusual in rendering the luminosity of nature and in being a colorist who was also a great draughtsman. Belongs more to the French than the Dutch school.

*William Roelof's* (1882—). Born in Amsterdam. Frequently visited the Barbizon painters and for many years had a studio in Brussels. "The Father of the Modern Dutch School of Emotional Landscape." He opened the way for others by the "return to nature." He was a realist, but not a copyist. Nature the material, art the expression of it through the varying moods of man. Portrayed the Dutch Meadows and bright flowers. Later introduced cattle. Influenced by the French Troyon.

*The artistic Antecedents of the Dutch Painters.* First the Barbizon group; then the English Constable, who also had influenced the Barbizon artists, and through Constable to the Dutch Ruisdael and Hobbema and the French Claude Lorraine, all of whom had inspired the great Englishman.

*J. H. Weissenbruch* (1824-1903). More distinctly native in his art. Studied under a Dutch painter, then at the advice of Bosboom went to nature. Became one of the broadest and most sympathetic painters of Holland with the added human element. Atmosphere and light his great achievements.

*Anton Mauve* (1838--88). As a boy studied in Amsterdam under a mediocre painter. Later influenced by Israels, William Maris, and Millet. Learned the spiritual lesson of each then developed his own quality. A poet of tone and color, painted the sea coast, shepherds and their flocks and in his treatment of animals one of the greatest in bringing out their character and sentiment. Possessed the quality of painting a surface beautiful in itself, one of the highest artistic qualities of this modern school. Mauve was one of the most delightful painters of landscapes with animals of any school or period. Excels in tender charm and pastoral feeling.

*Other excellen painters of the Modern period.* P. J. G. Gabriel, painter of the polders, Pieter ter Meulen, a painter of sheep, Theophile de Bock, a distinguished landscapist, Evart Pieters, G. H.

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Breitner, Isaac Israels, A. M. Gorter, and Louis van Soest, a masterly painter of snow scenes.

*Mathew Maris* (1830—), one of three famous brothers. Since 1877 he has lived in London and his remarkably poetic landscapes hidden away in private collections. His later pictures mystical in character and masterpieces of tone and color. He has become a recluse and dreamer and produced little of late.

*William Maris* (1844—). Early trained by his brothers. Devoted himself to the study of animals and developed a unique style of his own. Characteristic are the meadows after a storm illumined by bright skies, forming a setting for his animals.

*James Maris* (1837-99) with his two brothers, Matthew and William, worked together in Antwerp and Paris until the Franco-Prussian War. James the most many-sided of all the modern Dutchmen, even including Israels. Best known by his pictures of cities, canals and windmills with wonderful painting of skies and cloud effects. The study of outdoor life has attracted the men of this school and though Maris has painted indoors he gets truthful *"plein air"* effects. One of the greatest masters of tone and color in the Dutch school.

*Modern Schools of painting light.* The Dutch masters of the seventeenth century painted light in one color of a certain tone but William Maris and other moderns used "broken color," the placing of the primary colors in their purity side by side resulting in a more vivid impression of the brightness of daylight. James Maris and Mauve use blended outlines to suggest atmosphere. The group is modern in largeness of vision and kindly human sympathy and Dutch in their conscientious craftsmanship and good sense.

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# Summary School Courses at Chautauqua New York Season of 1909

JOHN H. VINCENT, Chancellor. PERCY H. BOYNTON, Secretary.
ARTHUR E. BESTOR, Director. GEORGE E. VINCENT, President.

EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL.

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## SUMMARY OF COURSES.

The following is merely a list of courses offered in the thirteen schools of Chautauqua Institution during the summer of 1909. A complete catalog, giving a description of each course, will be mailed on application to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, New York. This catalog will give full information as to tuition fees, expenses, etc.

## I. ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Prof. Richard Burton, Prof. Stockton Axson, Prof. Sherlock B. Gass, Prof. Percy H. Boynton, Mr. Charles E. Rhodes.

1. Tennyson. 2. Shakespeare's Macbeth. 3. Major Nineteenth Century Poets. 4. English Drama. 5. A Survey of American Literature. 6. A Survey of English Literature. 7. Principles and Practice of Composition. 8. Composition and Rhetoric. 9-11. Three courses in High School English.

## II. MODERN LANGUAGES.

### FRENCH.

M. Benedict Papot, Dr. G. E. Papot, Mme. Carmen Lesne-Coop.

1. Beginning French, Natural Method. 2. Tutoring Class in Natural Method. 3. Beginning French Elementary Grammar. 4. Tutoring Class Elementary Grammar. 5. Beginners' Reading Course. 6. Interpretation of Easy French Texts. 7. Intermediate French Grammar. 8. Intermediate French Natural Method. 9. Syntax and Elementary Composition. 10. The French Novel after Balzac. 11. Advanced French Prose. 12. Advanced Phonetics. 13. Children's Classes. 14. Beginners' Course. 15. French Lectures.

### SPANISH AND ITALIAN.

Mr. Alfonso de Salvio.

16. Elementary Spanish Grammar. 17. Elementary Conversation and Reading. 18. Advanced Spanish. 19. Elementary Italian Grammar. 20. Advanced Italian.

### INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF ESPERANTO.

M. Benedict Papot.

22. Beginning Esperanto, Natural Method. 23. Beginning Esperanto, Grammar. 24. Intermediate Esperanto. 25. Advanced Esperanto.

### GERMAN.

Prof. E. J. Fluegel, Mr. Richard Wagenknecht.

26. Beginning German Conversational Method. 27. Tutoring



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Class in Conversational Method. 28. Elementary German Grammar. 29. Tutoring Class in Elementary Grammar. 30. Intermediate German Grammar. 31. Intermediate German Composition and Conversation. 32. Intermediate Reading. 33. Advanced German Prose Composition. 34. Advanced German Reading. 35. German Themes. 36. Goethe's Faust. 37. Children's Class in German.

## III. CLASSICAL LANGUAGES.

Prof. George D. Kellogg, Prof. J. W. Basore.

1. Beginning Latin. 2. Studies in Cæsar. 3. Studies in Virgil. 4. Begining Greek. 5. Latin Composition. 6. Anabasis. 7. Homer's Iliad.

## IV. MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE.

Dr. N. J. Lennes, Mr. W. W. Andrew, Prof. L. L. Campbell, Mr. H. H. Van Cott.

1. Elementary Algebra. 2. Plane Geometry. 3a. Plane Trigonometry. 3b. Solid Geometry. 4. Advanced Algebra. 5. The General Pedagogy of Secondary Mathematics. 6. Primary Arithmetic. 7. Intermediate Arithmetic. 8. Advanced Arithmetic.

### PHYSICS.

9. Physics I. 10. Physics II. 11. Physical Laboratory Work I. 12. Physical Laboratory Work II.

### CHEMISTRY.

13. Chemistry. 14. Laboratory Chemistry.

### NATURE STUDY, BIOLOGY, AGRICULTURE.

Miss Alice McCloskey, Mr. A. A. Allen, Mr. Vaughn McCaughey, Prof. C. H. Tuck, Mr. M. P. Jones.

15. Lecture Course in Nature-Study for Teachers and Parents. 16. Field Work. 17. Elementary Agriculture. 18. High School Agriculture. 19. School Gardening. 20. Bird Work. 21. High School Biology. 22. Geology. 23. Physiography.

## V. PSYCHOLOGY AND PEDAGOGY.

Supt. F. D. Boynton, Mr. Clarence W. Sutton, Mr. W. V. D. Bingham.

1. Current Educational Problems. 2. The History of Education. 3. Elements of Psychology. 4. Psychology Applied to Education.

### ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

Miss Ada van Stone Harris, Miss Emily Bradshaw, Miss Caroline M. Morgan.

5. General Elementary Methods. 6. Methods for Primary Grades. Grades I-IV. 7. Methods for Grammar Grades. Grades V-VIII. 8. Methods for Rural School Teachers. 9. Hand Work in the Elementary School.

### KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION.

Miss Alice Temple, Miss Katherine Martin.

10. Kindergarten Theory and Practice. 11. The Kindergarten Program.

### MATERIAL AND METHOD IN SPECIAL SUBJECTS.

Supt. F. D. Boynton, Dr. Merrill, Miss E. Josephine Rice, Mr. H. E. Cogswell.

12. American History. 13. Civil Government. 14. High School Biology. 15. Geology. 16. Physiography. 17. Blackboard Sketching. 18. Public School Drawing. 19. Public School Music.

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CLASSES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

20. The Kindergarten. 21. The Nursery Kindergarten. 22. Boys' Club. 23. Girls' Club. 24. German and French.

## VI. RELIGIOUS TEACHING.

Rev. Alfred E. Lavell, Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut.

1. Biblical Literature. 2. The Development of Israel. 3. Religious Education. 4. Expansion of the Church through Sixteen Centuries. 5. Religious Education. 6. The Sunday School Teachers' Bible Class. 7. The Life of Christ. 8. Lectures on Palestine. 9. Bible Stories to Children.

## VII. LIBRARY TRAINING.

Miss Mary E. Downey, Miss Sabra W. Vought, Miss Alice E. Sanborn.

THE CHAUTAUQUA LIBRARY SCHOOL.

It is designed for librarians of smaller libraries and library assistants who cannot leave their work for the extended courses offered in regular library schools, but who can get leave of absence for six weeks of study to gain a broader conception of their work and a general understanding of modern methods and ideals.

SPECIAL LECTURES.

The work of the staff will be supplemented by special lectures from time to time and by the regular Chautauqua program. The whole atmosphere of the place cannot be surpassed as a six weeks' home of the average librarian or assistant who will profit greatly by this unique Chautauqua life.

COURSE OF STUDY.

The course is systematically planned to accomplish the most possible in six weeks, each requiring 40 hours of study. Regular lectures and lessons will include: cataloging, classification (decimal system), accessioning, author numbers, shelf-listing, book selection and buying, reference work, bibliography, library building and equipment, library organization and administration, statistics and accounts, book-making, binding and repair, note taking, library handwriting, mechanical preparation of books for the shelves, serials, loan systems, library extension, work with children, schools, study clubs, etc.

The Chautauqua and neighboring libraries give the students practical work under direction of their instructors. Practice work, following instruction, is carefully revised. Visits are made to Buffalo and other places of interest and benefit to library workers.

TEXT BOOKS.

Dewey Decimal Classification, Cutter Author Tables, Cutter Rules for a Dictionary Catalog, Simplified Library School Rules, A. L. A. Lists of Subject-headings, A. L. A. Catalog, Kroeger's Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books.

ADVANCED REGISTRATION.

Application for admission should be made if possible before June 15 to Miss Mary E. Downey, State Library, Columbus, Ohio. No one will be admitted to the class who has not previously filled out a registration blank and received the official matriculation card. Early application is desirable as the class is limited to the number that can be given satisfactory instruction and supervision.

There will be no entrance examination but no one will be accepted who has not had a high school course or its equivalent. Experience in library work, usually of not less than a year, is essential to understand the technical instruction given.

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EXPENSES.

Tuition fee is $20 for the course, to which must be added the regular gate fee of $5 charged every student at Chautauqua to cover cost of an elaborate program of lectures, concerts, entertainments, etc., free to all within the grounds. Six to ten dollars will probably cover cost of necessary text books, note books, catalog cards, and various technical fittings to be retained as personal property.

## VIII. DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

Miss Anna Barrows, Miss Helen M. Dav Miss Gertrude Duntz, Miss Lura Duntz.

1. School Room Cookery. 2. Sanitation and Dietetics. 3. Practical Home Cooking. 4. Household Management. Demonstration Lectures. 5. Sewing. 6. Primary Methods. 7. Garment Making. 8. Shirt Waists.

## IX. MUSIC.

PUBLIC SCHOOL MUSIC.

Mr. Hamlin E. Cogswell.

Normal Training School for Supervisors and Grade Teachers. (A) Supervisors' Course. (B) Grade Teachers' Course.

MANDOLIN, GUITAR, AND BANJO.

Mr. Myron A. Bickford.

PIANO.

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ORGAN.

Mr. Henry B. Vincent.

VOICE.

Mr. Frank Croxton, Mrs. Marie Zimmerman, Mr. Charles E. Washburn, Mr. Frederick Shattuck..

VIOLIN.

Mr. Sol Marcosson.

## X. ARTS AND CRAFTS.

Mr. Henry Turner Bailey, Mr. Frank P. Lane, Miss E. Josephine Rice, Miss Caroline M. Morgan, Mr. George H. Eggers, Mr. James Hall, Miss Elizabeth E. Gerrabrant, Miss Myrtle M. Irons, Miss Claire A. Babbitt, Mr. Thomas R. Pickrel, Mr. Lauren H. Martin.

1. Elements of Beauty. 2. Blackboard Drawing. 3. Elementary School Drawing. 4. Elementary Hand Work. 5. Freehand Drawing. 6. Life Drawing. 7. Outdoor Sketching. 8. School Printing and Lettering. 9. Design. 10. Stenciling and Block Printing. 11. Basketry. 12. Weaving. 13. Chair Seating. 14. Leather Work. 15. Book Binding. 16. Woodworking. 17. Wood Carving. 18. Metal Work.

CERAMICS.

Mrs. L. Vance Phillips.

## XI. EXPRESSION.

Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker, Mr. Wm. P. Gorsuch.

1. Regular Normal Course—(a) Vocal and Mental Technique, (b) Gesture According to Physical Laws, (c) Literary and Dramatic Interpretation, (d) Artistic Reading. 2. Public School Teachers' Course in Reading and Methods of Teaching it. 3. Non-Professional Course. 4. Course in Modern Poetry and Drama. 5. How

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to make a Speech. 6. Vocal Culture. 7. Speech as a Mode of Personality. 8. Group Courses.

XII. PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

1. Normal Course. 2. General Gymnastics. 3. Medical Gymnastic Exercises. 4. Health Culture. 5. Outdoor Sports and Games. 6. Aquatics.

XIII. PRACTICAL ARTS.

SHORTHAND AND TYPEWRITING.

Mr. W. D. Bridge, Miss Bridge.

BOOKKEEPING, PENMANSHIP.

Mr. Wm. H. Covert.

PARLIAMENTARY LAW.

Mrs. John F. Lewis.

PERSONAL EFFICIENCY.

A course of daily lectures and conferences on various problems involved in the upbuilding of bodily health with the aim of developing the highest degree of physical and intellectual efficiency. These lectures will be delivered in part by Mr. Horace Fletcher and will be arranged in coöoperation with him and conducted under his general supervision.

# Classified Program

## 36TH ANNUAL ASSEMBLY, JULY 1-AUGUST 29.

### LECTURES.

**Sermons and Religious Lectures:** July 4, Dr. Charles E. Jefferson. July 11, Dr. P. S. Henson. July 18, Dr. Francis E. Clark. July 25, Rev. John Thomas. August 1, Dr. Russell H. Conwell. August 8, Rev. Geo. Adam Smith. August 15, Bishop J. H. Vincent. August 22, Dr. D. Dorchester, Jr. August 29, to be announced.

**Devotional Hours:** July 1, 2, Bishop John H. Vincent. July 5-9, Dr. Charles E. Jefferson. July 12-13, Dr. P. S. Henson. July 14-16, Dr. Francis E. Clark. July 19, Rev. Fred W. Adams. July 20, President Herbert Welch. July 21-23, Rev. John Thomas. July 26-30, Dr. Shailer Mathews. August 2-4, Dr. J. M. Thoburn, Jr. August 5, 6, Rev. F. W. Bible. August 9-13, Dr. W. T. McElveen. August 16, Bishop J. H. Vincent. August 17, Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus. August 19, 20, President W. H. P. Faunce. August 23-27, Dr. Daniel Dorchester, Jr.

**Religious Education Symposium:** The Development of Character: Through the College and University, July 12, Professor George Albert Coe. Through the Public Schools, July 13, Professor Clyde W. Votaw. Through the Sunday School, July 14, Professor Edwin D. Starbuck. Through the Churches, July 15, Professor Herbert F. Willett. Through Social and Personal Hygiene, July 16, Dr. George J. Fisher. Through Social Living, July 17, Mr. Henry F. Cope. Moral and Religious Education in the Home, July 12-16. Five afternoon conferences correlated with the above morning lectures.

**The Unity of the Bible:** August 2-7, Professor Richard G. Moulton.

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LITERARY.

Idealism in American Life, July 1. Books and Writers, July 2, Dr. Hamilton W. Mabie. Poetry of Wordsworth, July 1. Poetry of Kipling, July 2, Miss Margaret Anderson. Problems and Ideals of Victorian Literature, July 5-10, Professor Stockton Axson. James Whitcomb Riley, Prince of Hoosiers and Prophet of Good Cheer, July 17, Mark Twain and other Marks. July 19, Rev. Fred Winslow Adams. The Unity of the Bible, August 2-7, Professor R. G. Moulton. George Eliot, August 2-7, Professor Richard Burton. C. L. S. C. Lecture Series, August 9-13. The Ring and the Book (followed by four readings), August 9-13, Rev. R. W. VanKirk.

HISTORICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL.

**Social Service Symposium:** (July 19-24). The Religion of the Two Commandments, July 19, President Herbert Welch. The Justice and Prosperity of the Future, July 19, Professor Edward T. Devine. Duties and Opportunities in the Care of Needy Children, July 20, Mr. Homer Folks. The Social Value of the Church, July 20, Rev. W. M. Tippy. The City and the Kingdom, July 21, Rev. Frank Mason North. Why Should we Import Rags and Relics into the New Home? July 21, Let us Stand on our own Feet, July 23, Rev. Martha Bortle. The Labor Unions and Human Brotherhood, July 23, Dr. W. M. Balch. Our Country and the World, July 22. Dr. Josiah Strong.

**Democracy Symposium:** (July 26-30). Implications of Democracy, July 26-30, Mr. Charles Zueblin. Railways and the People, July 27, President W. C. Brown. Education for Democracy, July 29, Rev. Samuel A. Eliot. The Menace of a Demagogue, July 30, Hon. Leslie M. Shaw. Suffragist or Suffragette—Which? August 7, Rev. Anna Shaw.

**Symposium on Country Life:** (August 23-28). Industrial Aspects of Country Life, August 23, Professor J. W. Jenks. Government and Public Health, August 24, Dr. C. W. Stiles. Experimental Plant Breeding and Practical Farming, August 25, Prof. J. H. Webber. Public School Agriculture and the Business of Farming, August 25, Mr. D. J. Crosby. A More Beautiful America, August 27, Mr. J. Horace McFarland. Three Lectures on the Conservation of National Resources, August 26, speakers to be announced.

PEDAGOGICAL AND SCIENTIFIC.

The Nation's Educational Purpose, July 3, Hon. Andrew S. Draper. The Use of Mind, July 5-10, Dr. Earl Barnes. Self Education, July 5, President George E. Vincent. The Private School in a Democracy, July 6, Professor Endicott Peabody. The Cream of Memory Systems, August 9, Dr. James M. Buckley. Organic Evolution, August 16-21, Dr. J. M. Coulter. The School as a Society, August 16-20, Professor J. J. Findley.

PEDAGOGICAL AND HISTORICAL.

**Health and Efficiency Symposium:** Dietetic Righteousness, August 9, Mr. Horace Fletcher. Exercise and Health, August 10, Dr. James M. Buckley. Mental Hygiene, August 11, Dr. Henry B. Favill. The Warfare for Health, August 11, Dr. Wm. Seaman Bain-

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bridge. Health and Efficiency, August 12, Professor Irving Fisher. Mental Healing, August 12, Dr. James M. Buckley. Mental Therapeutics, August 13, Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows. Lecture, August 14, Professor J. D. Kellogg.

ILLUSTRATED LECTURES.

**Illustrated Lectures:** The Military Conquest of the Alleghenies, July 1. The Commercial Conquest of the Alleghenies, July 2, Professor Archer B. Hulbert. Beauty in Common Things (with blackboard illustrations), July 6. The Enjoyment of Pictures, July 15, Mr. Henry Turner Bailey. To be announced, July 20, 22. From Coronado to Kit Carson, July 27. The Grand Canyon of Arizona, July 29, Mr. Nat Brigham. The Drama of Life, August 5. 'Neath the Shadow of Vesuvius, August 7, Rev. U. G. B. Pierce. Parsifal, August 10. The Drama of Ben Hur (with Stereopticon views and the Victor Auxetophone), August 11, Rev. Henry R. Rose. American Warriors in the Warfare for Life, August 14, Dr. Wm. Seaman Bainbridge. The Blackfeet Indians, August 18, Mr. Walter McClintock. Moving Pictures, August 24, 25, Lyman Howe Company. The Explorations of an Archaeologist, August 26, 28, Professor James H. Breasted.

C. L. S. C. FEATURES.

Self Education, President George E. Vincent, July 5. Organization of the Class of 1913, July 12. Historic Types of Architecture, Mr. H. T. Bailey, July 16. What the Circle Offers to Graduates, Miss Georgie L. Hopkins, July 19. Social Life at Rome, Prof. G. D. Kellogg, July 23. Reading in Circles versus Reading Alone, Miss Kate F. Kimball, July 26. C. L. S. C. Reception, July 29. Popular Education and Democracy, Prof. Shailer Mathews, July 30. Rallying Day Exercises: Addresses by Bishop Vincent, Prof. Burton, and others; Reception in the Hall, July 31. Rally of the Class of 1913, August 2. The Greek Tragedy, Prof. R. G. Moulton, August 6. Woman's Progress in Civilization, Rev. Anna Shaw, August 7. The Chautauqua Circle and Social Service, Dr. J. L. Hurlbut. Lecture, Prof. G. D. Kellogg, August 9. Lecture, Prof. J. W. Basore, August 11. Famous Passages from Homer, Prof. P. H. Boynton, August 12. Lecture, August 13. The Reading Circle at the Assemblies, Rev. D. W. Howell, August 16. Promenade Concert and C. L. S. C. Receptions at the various Class Headquarters, August 17. Recognition Day: Assemblage; Recognition Day Address, Pres. W. H. P. Faunce. Roman and American Politics, Mr. A. E. Bestor, August 18. Home Reading Circles in England, August 20. Making Friends for the Circle, Mr. F. C. Bray, August 23.

## READING HOURS AND RECITALS.

**Reading Hours:** Selected Readings, July 5-9, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, Molière Comedies, July 12-16, Mr. Wm. P. Gorsuch. Selected Readings, July 26-30, Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker. Selected Readings, August 16-20, Miss Mabel C. Bragg. "The Ring and the Book," August 23-27, Rev. R. W. VanKirk.

**Recitals:** In Nineteen Hundred-and-Now, July 8, Edmund Vance Cooke. Ulysses, July 10, Professor S. H. Clark. The Servant in the House, July 13, Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker. Dramatic Read-

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ings, July 17, 19, Mrs. Isabel G. Beecher. Rip Van Winkle, July 21, Professor L. Barbour. The Physician in Spite of Himself, July 24, Mr. Wm. P. Gorsuch. Life Portrayals from Dickens, with changes of costume, July 28, William Sterling Battis. Monsieur Beaucaire, July 31. The Dawn of a To-morrow, August 2. Lord Chumley, August 4, Mr. Leland Powers. Midsummer Night's Dream with Music, August 16, Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker. Peaceful Valley, August 19, David Garrick, August 21, Mr. Phidelah Rice.

## MUSIC.

**Sacred Song Services:** Every Sunday, 7:45 p. m., general congregational singing, with special selections by the Chautauqua Choir, Orchestra, Soloists, and Organist.

**Midweek Concerts:** Occur regularly Monday and Friday evenings at 8:00 and Wednesday afternoons at 2:30 o'clock. Special Programs include the following: Quartet Song Cycle, "Flora's Holiday," Lane Wilson, July 14. American Composers' Program, July 21. Oratorio "Elijah," Mendelssohn, July 23. Cantata "The Mermaid," Julian Edwards, July 26. Cantata for Junior Choir, "Into the World," Peter Benoit, July 28. Selections from "Faust," Gounod, July 30. Tennyson Anniversary Concert, August 6. "Hiawatha's Wedding Feast, "The Death of Minnehaha," and "Hiawatha's Departure," Coleridge-Taylor, August 11, 12. Mendelssohn Music accompaning Recital of "Midsummer Night's Dream." August 16. Cantata "The Gate of Life," Franco Leoni, August 20.

**New York Symphony Orchestra** will give a special program on the afternoon of July 24 with the full summer orchestra of fifty, conducted by Mr. Walter Damrosch, founder of the orchestra and leader since 1903.

**Artist's Recitals** (a) Seven Piano and Violin Recitals by Messrs. W. H. Sherwood and Sol Marcosson, Tuesday afternoons in Higgins Hall, and (b) Eight Vocal Recitals by Messrs. Frank Croxton and C. C. Washburne, and Mrs. Marie Zimmerman on Thursday afternoons in Higgins Hall. A fee is charged.

## LECTURERS.

Rev. Fred W. Adams, July 17, 19.
Miss Margaret Anderson, July 1-2.
Professor Stockton Axson, July 5-10.
Mr. Henry Turner Bailey, July 6, 15, 16,
Mr. B. N. Baker, July 31.
Dr. Earl Barnes, July 5-10.
Dr. Wm. Seaman Bainbridge, August 11, 14.
Dr. W. M. Balch, July 23.
Prof. J. W. Basore, August 11.
Mr. Arthur E. Bestor, August 18, 23-28.
Rev. F. W. Bible, August 5, 6.
Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth, August 10.
Rev. Martha Bortle, July 21, 23.
Professor Percy H. Boynton, July 1, August 12.
Mr. Frank Chapin Bray, August 23.

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Professor James H. Breasted, August 26, 28.
Mr. Nat Brigham, July 27, 29.
President W. C. Brown, July 27.
Dr. James M. Buckley, August 9-13.
Professor Richard Burton, August 2-7.
Dr. Francis E. Clark, July 14-18.
Professor George Albert Coe, July 12.
Dr. Russell H. Conwell, July 31, August 1.
Mr. Henry F. Cope, July 15, 17.
Professor John M. Coulter, August 16-21.
Mr. D. J. Crosby, August 25.
Professor E. T. Devine, July 19.
Mr. Melvil Dewey, August 3.
Dr. Daniel Dorchester, Jr., August 23-27.
Hon. Andrew S. Draper, July 3.
Rev. Samuel A. Eliot, July 29.
Mr. Milton Fairchild, July 29, 30.
Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows, August 13.
President W. H. P. Faunce, August 18-20.
Dr. Henry B. Favill, August 11.
Professor J. J. Findley, August 16-20.
Dr. George J. Fisher, July 16.
Prof. Irving Fisher, August 12.
Mr. Horace Fletcher, July 5-7, August 9-14.
Mr. Homer Folks, July 20.
Governor Robert B. Glenn, August 21.
Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus, August 17-20.
Dr. P. S. Henson, July 11-13.
Mr. Richard M. Hodge, July 16.
Miss Georgie L. Hopkins, July 19, August 10.
Rev. D. W. Howell, August 16.
Professor Archer B. Hulbert, July 1, 2.
Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, August 4-18.
Dr. Charles E. Jefferson, July 4-9.
Professor J. W. Jenks, August 23.
Professor George D. Kellogg, July 23.
Miss Kate F. Kimball, July 26.
Dr. J. H. Kellogg, August 14.
President Edwin Erle Sparks, July 1, 2, 3.
Dr. Shailer Mathews, July 26-30.
Mr. Walter McClintock, August 18.
Dr. W. T. McElveen, August 9-13.
Mr. J. Horace McFarland, August 27.
Professor Richard G. Moulton, August 2-7.
Rev. Frank Mason North, July 21.
Dr. Endicott Peabody, July 6.
Rev. U. G. B. Pierce, August 5-7.
Miss Helen Potter, July 20, 22.
Rev. Henry R. Rose, August 10, 11.
Pres. Frank K. Sanders, July 14.
Rev. Anna Shaw, August 7.
Hon Leslie M. Shaw, July 30.
Rev. George Adam Smith, August 2-8.
Professor Edwin D. Starbuck, July 14.
Mr. Charles Stelzle, July 23.
Dr. C. W. Stiles, August 24.
Dr. Josiah Strong, July 22.
Rev. J. M. Thoburn, Jr., August 2-4.
Rev. John Thomas, July 21-25.
Dr. W. M. Tippy, July 20.
Bishop John H. Vincent, July 1, 2, 17, August 15, 16.
President George E. Vincent, July 2, 5.
Professor Clyde W. Votaw, July 13.
Dr. Booker T. Washington, July 10.
Professor Herbert J. Webber, August 25.
President Herbert Welch, July 19, 20.
Hon. A. P. Wilder, August 14.
Prof. Herbert L. Willett, July 15.
Mr. Charles Zueblin, July 26-30.

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READERS.

Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker, July 13, 26-30, August 16.
Professor Livingstone Barbour, July 21.
Mr. Wm. Sterling Battis, July 28.
Miss Mabel C. Bragg, August 16-20.
Mrs. Isabel Garghill Beecher, July 17, 19.
Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, July 5-9, August 13.
Professor S. H. Clark, July 10.
Mr. Edmund Vance Cooke, July 8.
Mr. Wm. Pierce Gorsuch, July 12-16, 24.
Mr. Leland Powers, July 31, Aug. 2, 4.
Mr. Phidelah Rice, August 19, 21.
Rev. R. W. VanKirk, August 23-27.

MUSICIANS.

Mr. Henry D. Bastow, July 1-31.
Mrs. Frances Hewitt Bowne, July 1-31.
Mr. Walter Damrosch, July 24.
Miss Elizabeth Dodge, August 1-29.
Miss Florence L. Fiske, July 1-31.
Mr. Alfred Hallam, July 1-August 29.
Mr. Sol Marcosson, July 3-August 13.
Mr. Myron A. Bickford, July 3-August 13.
Mr. Bertram Schwahn, July 1-31.
Mr. Alfred D. Shaw, August 1-29.
Mr. Frederick G. Shattuck, July 1-August 29.
Mr. William Sherwood, July 3-Aug. 13.
Mr. Henry B. Vincent, July 1-August 29.
Mr. Herbert Waterous, August 1-29.
Mr. H. A. Wheeldon, July 13, 15.
Mr. R. J. Winterbottom, July 24, August 5.

# Assembly Calendar for 1909

For the convenience of C. L. S. C. members who intend to take advantage of the C. L. S. C. exercises held this summer by various Chautauqua Assemblies throughout the country the following list of Assemblies is published. We have here noted only those Assemblies which have already sent information as to dates, and arranged for C. L. S. C. representation. There are other Assemblies which have not reported.

| *Name of Chautauqua.* | *Assembly Dates.* | *Manager.* |
|---|---|---|
| **ARKANSAS** | | |
| Siloam Springs, | July 30-Aug. 6. | F. W. Bartell, Mgr. |
| **CALIFORNIA.** | | |
| Pacific Grove, | July 9-25. | Mrs. E. J. Dawson, Sec., San Jose, Cal. |
| Recognition Day, July 21. Speaker, W. C. Evans, D. D. | | |
| **COLORADO.** | | |
| Boulder, | July 4-Aug. 14. | F. A. Boggess, Sec. |
| Rocky Mountain, | July 15-Aug. 21. | Frank McDonough, Jr., Sec. |

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CONNECTICUT.

Plainville (Conn. Chaut. Assem.) July 21-29. B. F. Gilman, Sec.

ILLINOIS.

Aurora, Aug. 9-23. O. L. Wilson, Mgr.
Camargo, Aug. 7-22. W. D. Higdon, Supt.
Dixon (Rock River), Speaker, D. W. Howell, D. D.
Recognition Day, Aug. 5. July 31-Aug. 15. Adam A. Krape, Supt., Polo.
Elgin, Aug. 9-19. James H. Shaw, Mgr.
Havana, July 29-Aug. 12. Jas. L. Loar, Mgr., Bloomington.
Recognition Day, Aug. 6. Speaker, D. W. Howell, D. D.
Hoopeston, July 30-Aug. 8. Jas. H. Shaw, Supt
Recognition Day, Speaker, Mrs. Charles E. Risser.
Litchfield, Aug. 1-15. E. H. Baldwin, Sec.
Lithia Springs, Aug. 14-30. Rev. J. L. Douthit.
Recognition Day, Aug. 21. Speaker, Prof. S. C. Schmucker.
Ottawa, Aug. 20-29. Jas. H. Shaw, Supt.
Petersburg (Old Salem), Aug. 11-29. Rev. J. M. Johnson.
Pontiac, July 17-Aug. 1. A. C. Folsom, Mgr.
Recognition Day, July 28. Speaker, G. E. Vincent.

INDIANA.

Kokomo, Aug. 6-15. Wm. E. Rauch, Sec.
Recognition Day ,Aug. 20. Speaker, Dr. George E. Vincent.
Oakland City, May 28-June 7. Byron W. King, Supt.
Pleasant Shades, July 17-Aug. 1. W. D. Higdon, Supt.
Wabash, July 6-15. James H. Shaw, Mgr.
Winona Lake, June 28-Aug. 21. Rev. S. C. Dickey, Mgr.
Recognition Day, Aug. 20. Speaker, Dr. George E. Vincent.

IOWA.

Charles City, Aug. 3-14. A. D. Clark, Secy.
Clarinda, Aug. 5-14. W. E. Whittaker, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 13.
Des Moines, July 2-11.
Waterloo, June 29-July 9. R. N. Corwin, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 6. Speaker, Prof. James W. Crook.

KANSAS.

Cawker City (Lincoln Park Assembly), July 31-Aug. 16. Robert Good, Sec., Jamestown.
Clay Center (Clay County Chautauqua), July 23-Aug. 1. C. Vincent Jones, Sec.
Coffeyville, Rev. C. S. Nusbaum, Sec.
Emporia, Aug. 15-21. Fred W. Bartell Mgr.
Ottawa, July 19-Aug. 30. Henry Durst, Sec.
Parsons, July 9-19. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.
Pittsburg, Aug. 15-21. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.
Salina, July 22-Aug. 1. A. H. King, Sec.
Sterling, July 27-Aug. 6. C. G. Miller, Sec.

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Wathena, Aug. 21-29. A. W. Themanson, Sec.
Recognition Day, Aug. 25. Speaker, Rev. M. F. Troxell.
Winfield, July 5-16. A. H. Limerick, Sec.,
Recognition Day, July 12. 119 E. 9th Ave.

MARYLAND.

Recognition Day, Aug. 10. Aug. 1-30. W. L. Davidson,
Mountain Lake Park, Mgr., 1711 Lamont St. N. W.,
July 20-Sept. 4. A. H. Hiller, Sec.
Washington, D. C.
Washington Grove,

MASSACHUSETTS.

Northampton (Conn. Valley
Chautauqua), July 13-23. E. P. Butler, Pres.
Recognition Day, July 21.

MICHIGAN.

Jackson, June 24-July 4. O. L. Wilson, Mgr.
Kalamazoo, July 15-25. O. L. Wilson, Mgr.

MISSOURI.

Aurora, July 17-23. F. W. Bartell, Mgr.
Carthage, July 12-24 E. H. Wyatt, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 24. Speaker, D. W. Howell, D. D.
Clinton, July 15-25. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.
Monett, July 24-30. Fred W. Bartell Mgr.
Sedalia, July 17-31. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.
Springfield, July 5-17. Fred W. Bartell, Mgr.

NEW JERSEY.

Ocean Grove, July 9-19. A. E. Ballard, Sec.

NEW YORK.

Chautauqua, July 1-Aug. 29. A. E. Bestor.
Recognition Day, Aug. 18. Speaker, Pres. W. H. P. Faunce,
Brown Univ.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Devil's Lake, July 3-19. Edgar LaRue, Sec.

OHIO.

Bellefontaine, July 23-Aug. 1. James H. Shaw, Supt.
Recognition Day Speaker, Miss H. E. Stanley.
Bethesda (Epworth Park), Aug. 6-23. T. S. Secrest, Supt.
Urbana, Aug. 27-Sept. 5. James H. Shaw, Supt.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Mount Gretna, July 3-Aug. 4. V. W. Dippell, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 29. Speaker, Bishop Vincent.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Big Stone Lake Chautauqua, July 1-15. R. J. Hicks, Sec.
Recognition Day, July 14. Speaker, Arthur E. Gringle.
Madison, June 25-July 12. G. G. Smith, Pres.
Recognition Day, Aug. 12. Speaker, Rev. Wm. M. Anderson.

TENNESSEE.

Monteagle, July 3-Aug. 29. Allen G. Hall, Supt.

WISCONSIN.

Delavan Lake, Aug. 12-22. W. A. Cochran, Pres.
Recognition Day, Aug. 12. Speaker, Gov. R. B. Glenn,
North Carolina.

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# Talk About Books

MR. OPP. By Alice Hegan Rice. New York: The Century Company. Pp. 320. Price $1.00.

Mr. Opp is a "bluffer." He is constantly trying to look and act the part that he would like to have his neighbors think natural to him. He is sincere, in that his pretentions are more convincing to himself —up to a certain juncture, than to anybody else. The interest of the story, its humor and its pathos, lie chiefly at first in the ludicrous conceit and bravery of the little man and in the pitiable thinness of his disguise, to all eyes but his own and those of his weak-minded sister. He and Kippy are slow to understand, genuine heroism emerges more and more from beneath all the shamming—an optimism and a doggedness that will not call failure by its name till it has given the bitterest proofs, and a generosity that counts nothing too dear for the object of its chief devotion. This chief object is not the pretty pink and white heroine but Kippy, for whose sake he turns away from life as even commonplace and inadequate men may know it if they will. When Mr. Opp stands at last revealed to himself, with all illusion stripped away, he commands more respect and sympathy than ever before. He can still bid Godspeed to the man who has superseded him as editor of the local newspaper and married the girl of his earlier dreams. He can still turn his back on the kindly neighbors who have gathered half in pity to do him honor on his retirement and trudge home alone through the rain to Kippy, who would not be reconciled to his absence. After all, there are other things to measure a man by than nicety of taste or power of mentality. Mr. Opp is a book of the heart. It is altogether worthy to stand as a later and maturer achievement by the author of Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch.

THE HOME BUILDER. By Lyman Abbott. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.: Boston. Pp. 129. 75 cents.

In this brief character study Dr. Abbott has traced with delicacy and charm the essentials of womanhood as interpreted by his thought and experience of life in his own home. It is a lofty view which he presents, while the very homeliness of the virtues pictured, gives the book a universal quality which makes its ethical suggestions very practical. It is a retrospective view by one who has already passed the threescore limit, and whose outlook upon this life and whose anticipations of another give him both confidence and hope.



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WALT WHITMAN. George Rice Carpenter. Macmillan Company. 1909. Pp. 172. Price 75 cents.

This latest contribution to the English Men of Letters series was written by one of the Americans who has done most to promote an intelligent study of the literature of this country. Professor Carpenter's sudden death in April at the age of forty-five gives emphasis to this book, now that his work has been so abruptly terminated. The Whitman book is after the style of the English Men of Letters series as a whole, giving its main attention to the biographical facts of Whitman's life. To do this thoroughly, of course, demands an interpretative mind, and the skill and sympathy of Mr. Carpenter's analyses, particularly when they call into play his expert knowledge of psychology as applied to writing make the book a very real contribution to the already voluminous literature concerning Whitman.

A TAR-HEEL BARON. Mabell Shippie Clark Pelton. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. Pp. 354. Price $1.50.

This book is not new. In fact it has lately gone into its fourth edition. Some books do. And if a "popular novel" lives into its fourth, there usually is something to account for it. The Tar-Heel Baron can hardly have been kept for its pictorial illustrations. We incline to think it has lived along on its merits. The place is among the mountains of North Carolina. The Baron does not belong there by heredity, as may be inferred from his title even without reference to his name, von Rittenheim. But he is an importation worth while for his essential nobility, not too good to be true; for his excessive seriousness which lends a humor running naturally into pathos here and there; for his foreign blunders and foreign insight, withal; and for the occasion he gives to the natives, good and bad, to show their essential qualities. These qualities are represented by sufficiently varied types, admirably drawn. There is the generous, negligent, drawling country doctor, the devil-may-care, hard-drinking, fast riding young rake who never thought evil, who harmed only himself, who told his mother of his passionate love for the heroine, lived soberly for months in the hope of winning other than a sisterly regard; and died gladly to save for her the Baron, whom she had preferred to himself. There is Sydney, with whom the men all fall in love, and very accountably, for she is full of vitality, dash, and womanly tenderness; and there are moonshiners, the poor but not disreputable whites, the negroes, and the various relations of these one to another. "The gander pulling," "the poke party," and "the possum hunt" bring the various classes into clear view. The ethical vagueness of some wrong doers, the sophistry and wicked cunning of others, the courageous opposition of a few who represent better things, the connivance of officers of the law with law

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breakers, and the inevitableness with which right proves after all to be right and wrong to be wrong at the end, make a very interesting study, entirely free from preachment, and one the conclusions of which were far less obvious in 1903, when the book first appeared, than now. Hilda, the German adventuress in pursuit of the Baron, deliberate fascinator and destroyer of men, who is bitterly conscious at last that she is different from other women and wauld be cured by a genuine love if she could, presents a curious and convincing analysis of the vampire character. The plot of the book is absorbing, the style pleasing, and the work as a whole of very decided merit.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA: REPORT OF THE FIRST MEETING OF THE FEDERAL COUNCIL. PHILADELPHIA. 1908. The Revell Press: New York.

The book is a full report of the proceedings of this unique and epochal conference, whose purpose is well stated by the Secretary, the Rev. Silas B. Sanford, D. D., in his introduction, when he quotes from the Constitution: "To manifest the essential oneness of the Christian Churches of America in Jesus Christ as their divine Lord and Saviour, and to promote the spirit of fellowship, service and coöperation among them."

As one glances over the pages he is impressed with the catholicity of the leaders, for men of all evangelical churches mingle together in brotherly fellowship; the breadth of their views, for almost every place of religious thought and work is discussed; the eminence of the speakers, for nearly every one has special fitness for his chosen subject; and the one predominant note, for every subject and speaker leads up this one ideal—the rule of the Christ and His Spirit.

PEACE, POWER, AND PLENTY. By Orison Swett Marden. Thos. Y. Crowell & Co.: New York. Pp. 323.

If the title of Mr. Marden's last book, "Peace, Power, and Plenty," does not suggest its subject matter, it is because he intended the reader to discover that these three would come from following the principles of the work itself. While the author does not seek to be classified with any particular trend of present-time thinking he seems nearest to what is now recognized under the name of New Thought, the substance of which is expressed in his first chapter, "The Power of the Mind to Compel the Body." We have not seen any work which so clearly treats this fascinating theme,—a theme not really "new," but old. The literature emphasizing psychic influence as a factor in everyday life, is growing; entire periodicals being devoted to it, as well as books.

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Mr. Marden in this book applies the principle of thought-influence upon life, to health, wealth and old age (which last he regards as mainly mental). Worry he treats as a disease, and fear as a curse; both he insists are entirely out of place in human life. Like the explosive passions (e. g., anger) these, and various like ills to which flesh and spirit sink into bondage he declares are entirely avoidable, curable, removable, unnecessary and criminally needless. Good cheer, hope and the restrained expression of joy and gladness may not constitute a panacea for all life's ills, but our author in this book would have us believe they would cure the largest number.

The book makes interesting reading; the style is attractive; the principles are clearly stated, and constantly buttressed by facts drawn from present-day experiences. It is worthy of a wide reading, as its influence retain their hold upon life's activities and interests until the physical machinery stops running.

THE AGE OF SHAKESPEARE. By Algernon Charles Swinburne. Harper & Brothers: New York, 1908. Pp. 302. $2 net.

The conviction that Swinburne will be remembered only for his verse and his poetic plays is deepened by a reading of this, his last volume of critical opinions. He treats here chiefly of men who excite his admiration and commendation and in awarding praise the critic should be at his happiest. But this is not in this instance the case. The adulation of the dramatist considered is too unqualified and the contempt for unappreciative critics too fierce. The reader is forced to conclude that Swinburne was not by nature qualified to be an essayist or critic. The lyrical gift which makes many of his poems exquisite proves to be his undoing in prose criticism which demands sanity, restraint, balance. For none of these qualities was Swinburne conspicious.

DE LIBRIS. By Austin Dobson. The Macmillan Company: New York 1908. Pp. 232. $1.50.

Austin Dobson's prose and verse though seldom bearing any close relation to life are usually diverting and possessed of distinct literary charm. His latest volume comprising both essays and poems is no exception to this general statement, though it is if anything milder and more bookish than its predecessors. In his rambles through the literary byways of the age of Pope the author has hit upon several likely topics which prove interesting to the casual reader who is little likely ever to explore all corners of the field for himself. "Bramston's 'Man of Taste,'" "M. Roquet on the Arts," "A French Critic of Bath," etc., indicate the nature of these essays. The verse is hardly up to Mr. Dobson's standard, being rather perfunctory though, as ever, graceful.

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Panorama View o

(See "A Reading Journ

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**Alhambra, Granada.**

**ough Spain," Page 311.)**

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Alfonso XIII.

Victoria.

The King and Queen of Spain.

(See "A Reading Journey Through Spain," page 311.)

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN
Vol 55. AUGUST, 1909. No. 3.

MR. ROOSEVELT once said that he did not fear that the American people would ever be unjust and ungenerous to the colonies in the Far East or nearer home, but that he did fear that we might become indifferent or neglectful of our "wards." Certainly the indifference is a fact, and equally certain it is that much injustice might indirectly result from it. Few care to read Philippine or Porto Rican "news," and not much of it now appears in our daily or weekly publications. Even when important legislation affecting the colonies is under discussion the interest in it is languid or entirely nonexistent.

There has been no little trouble of late between the American authorities in Porto Rico and the native legislative assembly. Deadlocks have resulted from serious differences between the upper council, appointive and controlled by Americans—aliens from the islanders' point of view—and the popular branch of the legislature, which is elective and representative of the majority of the natives, according to many of the leaders. Bills desired by the assembly and tending to give the island more autonomy and greater control of the judiciary have been rejected by the executive council. Resentment at this course has been so keen that at times paralysis of the administrative machinery was threatened. The assembly refused to pass appropriation bills, both at the regular and at a special session, and under the law there was no way of compelling it to act. No appropriations means no payment of salaries and the withholding of pay for work done by public contractors.

President Taft regarded this sort of tactics as revolu-


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tionary, as an infringement on the legal rights of the executive council, and asked Congress to amend the act prescribing the mode of government in Porto Rico so as to eliminate the possibility of obstruction or of refusal to vote supplies. He believes that we have been too generous to the islanders and have given them more freedom than they are prepared to exercise. Congress has agreed with him and has passed a bill providing, in effect, that when the Porto Rican legislature fails to make appropriations for the maintenance of the laws and the government the appropriations of the last previous supply act shall be deemed authorized until a new act is passed. To many Americans this legislation is profoundly distasteful. It means, they say, taxation without representation, and it departs from the ancient Anglo-Saxon practice of giving control of the national purse to elected representatives of the people. For the evils of Porto Rican politics, they hold, the remedy should be sought in greater autonomy, in the imposition of greater responsibility on the natives, in full-fledged American citizenship. It should be remembered that the Porto Ricans are not yet citizens of the United States, and that the strongest of their political parties advocates statehood and complete Americanization. Whichever view one takes, it is a matter for regret that American rule should still meet with so much disfavor in the new possessions. It may be that the Porto Ricans are "ungrateful," but the fact that there is friction, discontent, is a sad and unpleasant one.

In the Philippines, too, there have been disquieting developments. Now and then natives revolt against American rule; even the constabulary cannot always be depended upon, mutiny among them occurring not infrequently. There is no such harmony between the officials and the population as one could wish; the great majority of the natives want independence under an American protectorate, and the Philippine Assembly recently adopted resolutions to that effect, although, it must be said in justice, all through the last session the assembly cheerfully and intelligently coöperated with the commission, the direct representative of the Ameri-

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can government in the islands. There can be no doubt that if the American people continue to neglect the colonies and to show complete indifference to their needs and desires, their interests and aspirations, the argument for independence will grow stronger and the danger of discord under the existing system greater and greater.

### The Negro: His Present and Future

A national conference has been held in New York to discuss the position and prospects of the black man in the United States. The call for the conference was an outgrowth of certain grave, reactionary manifestations—of lynchings, of industrial discrimination against the negro, of a growing reluctance to defend his political privileges under the constitution, and so on.

It is true that several eminent men, life-long friends of the colored man, former Abolitionists even, had refused to sign the call and had stated it to be their opinion that the conference might do more harm than good. They feared that its work would be chiefly negative and critical; that attacks would be made on the administration and on the judiciary for alleged failure to enforce the constitutional safeguards of the negro, and that nothing but resentment and disturbing agitation would result. But many men and women of sober judgment and influence thought the conference opportune and it was accordingly held according to program.

Though some of the sessions were stormy and not a little friction occurred, on the whole there was a disposition to emphasize constructive work and encourage fraternal coöperation between the white and the black friends of justice. The resolutions adopted demand the enforcement of the constitution and the laws protective of the negro's rights and opportunities, protest against backward steps either in politics or in industry, and urge earnest efforts in behalf of the black men in those states where discrimination is practiced or threatened. The best result of the conference,

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however, is the decision to create a national committee of forty citizens for the purpose of organizing a larger body for studying the legal and political questions that just now concern the negro, defending or instituting suits in the courts to test the validity of statutes or ordinances objectionable to him, investigating lynching and keeping accurate records of crimes by or against negroes, and of promoting in various ways their education and welfare. The large national committee, when formed, may enlist the aid of other local bodies and invite citizens to affiliate with it. It will divide itself into several departments in order to do efficient work.

To such investigation and activity even the opponents of further agitation of the political grievances of the negro cannot seriously object It may be admitted that what the negro needs is industrial and moral training—thrift, skill, and capital, manliness and virtue—but a committee of white and black citizens of the kind proposed should be able to help the negro precisely in the directions where all agree that he most needs help. It might protect his industrial opportunities, secure arbitration in such cases as that of the Georgia railroad strike (which involved the question of the employment of negroes as firemen in competition with whites), resist mob violence, support agricultural and technical schools for negro youth, promote home and farm life among the black population. To ignore the present questions as to the American negro is not, it is contended, to do away with irritating agitation. Sympathy, help, knowledge will do that.

## The March of Social Reform

There is undoubtedly, as we have pointed out on several occasions, a fundamental conflict between militarism, big-navyism and such tremendous preparations for war as are now witnessed in Europe, on the one hand, and elaborate schemes of social and industrial reform on the other. Governments are almost in despair over the necessity of finding

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funds for both sets of "crying" needs, especially in view of the fundamental dislike of new taxes. The people who, in England, are demanding more war ships than the government thinks sufficient, are decidedly hostile to tax proposals that affect their own pockets. The poor who want measures of relief will not stand additional taxes on the things they consume, whether necessaries or such "luxuries" as tobacco and drink. Yet the ministry that does not meet the demands of either class of voters is in danger of defeat. In England, in Germany, in Austria, in Italy and even in Russia deficits and swelling budgets are causing much anxiety to the political parties, and new sources of taxation must be discovered and "tapped."

There are those who fear that the military and naval "scares" that are responsible for huge war budgets will arrest the movement that has been so marked a feature of the past decade—the movement for social reform. Lord Rosebery, ex-premier of England, told an imperial conference of journalists that "Europe was rattling itself into barbarism," and that liberty and national autonomy were in grave peril. Other statesmen are equally alarmed and equally pessimistic.

As a matter of fact, however, the march of social reform is not likely to be checked or arrested. Democracy and constitutionalism are too strong to be injured even by the appalling wave of revived militarism. The powers of Europe may be driven to come to some agreement for the limitation of armaments and military-naval appropriations, but it is the pressure for social reform that will constitute the spur. There is no possibility of a step backward. England will never repeal her old-age pension act; it is more than likely that the next ministry will extend and liberalize it. The legislative programs of the European governments embrace such costly reforms as insurance against unemployment and sickness, universal compensation for injuries, industrial education, promotion of agriculture, the establishment of loan banks for farmers and others, limitation of hours of labor, prevention of disease, and so on. France is planning a sys-

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tem of old-age pensions for wage-workers; Austria is building fit dwellings for the poor; England is proposing the creation of labor exchange and farm colonies, and studying insurance schemes for labor. The parties are vying with each other in the submission of reform bills, and no leader dares to take a position that would be offensive to the "masses." And the masses want peace and the opportunity to pursue their industrial occupations and improve their conditions. Of the government they chiefly expect the removal of wrongs and special privileges, the enactment and enforcemen of fair and equal laws, the encouragement of trade and commerce, the preservation of order and civil liberty. The individual German who thinks of war with England explains that the latter country is jealous and envious of his fatherland and determined to interfere with its expansion and progress. The individual Englishman who fears and suspects Germany does so because he sees danger in trade rivalry and in the need of finding new outlets for surplus products. Neither favors aggression. Live and let live is the motto of both. In these circumstances there should be no alarmist talk of an irrepressible conflict, and the civilization of the old world should not be represented as fatally undermined and tottering. There are no signs of "rebarbarization" in any European country, though there are plenty of sad signs of waste and misdirection of energy. Warriors, statesmen, and financiers are too ready to dismiss as visionary and sentimental plans for arbitration and limitation of armaments, yet nothing is more practical than conservation of national wealth and energy, development of internal resources, and avoidance of idle and senseless quarrels.

### Stock Gambling and Its Demoralizing Effect

The law and public sentiments have steadily discouraged gambling in its cruder forms. Lotteries have been suppressed, although at one time they flourished with full sanction from the government. What is called bucket-shop gambling, or betting on the course of the markets without

any intention of selling or buying goods, has been forbidden in most states. Race track gambling is now generally prohibited. The lower and vicious forms of gambling in pool-rooms, saloons and dens, are only tolerated where there is corruption in the police department.

But what of gambling in respectable forms, gambling on the stock exchanges, boards of trade, etc.? Certain forms of speculation are not only proper but essential to business stability and to steadiness of prices: that fact all recognize. But that thousands speculate without knowledge and without any other purpose than that of getting something for nothing; that speculation is often a means of cornering the market and artificially raising prices of necessaries; that trading on margins tempts the poor and weak who have no right to put a dollar into speculative ventures—are equally notorious and undeniable facts.

Gov. Hughes of New York, alive to the evils of sheer gambling in stocks or in commodities, appointed a commission a number of months ago to investigate the Wall street exchange and the whole speculative field in the financial and industrial capital of the country. The committee, composed of sober-minded, able and well-informed men, conducted a careful inquiry and lately submitted an elaborate report. Its recommendations are not radical, and the gamblers seem to think that they have nothing to fear from the results of the investigation. But if the exchanges should fail to adopt the comparatively moderate reforms recommended by the committee, legislation would undoubtedly be demanded by public sentiment, and more drastic changes would be imposed than those now deemed sufficient.

The committee admits that a substantial part of the trading on the stock exchange is sheer gambling that involves a practical certainty of loss to all who engage in it. It blames the press for encouraging such gambling and other reckless speculation by the publication of dishonest advertisements of wildcat concerns. It declares that too much fictitious dealing is tolerated by the governors of the exchange. Coming to practicable reforms, the commission recommends:

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Stringent rules against fictitious trading.

Discouraging trading on "margins" by the general public and demand of at least 20 per cent. of the value of the securities as margin.

Greater supervision of brokers and their books.

Greater publicity for corporate finances and affairs.

Rules against corners or attempts to monopolize markets.

Refusal to take orders from customers for the purchase or sale of less than 100 shares of any stock.

Legislative penalties for issuing false reports or false statements in prospectuses.

These are among the principal recommendations, and if they should be adopted much of the objectionable speculation would doubtless disappear. Some evils would remain, however, and both legislation and public sentiment would find it necessary to combat them. Dishonesty in business takes many forms, but there is hardly a greater breeder of dishonesty than the practice of gambling in commodities for the sake of profit without labor, service to any part of society, or useful thought. To preach industry and thrift when fortunes are made in gambling and cornering is to expose society to the charge of hypocrisy and cant.

### Income and Special Corporation Taxes

The House tariff bill, as it came to the Senate, contained a provision for federal taxation of inheritances. The President had recommended such a tax, in view of the deficit in the Treasury and the uncertainty of the success of the new tariff as a producer of revenue, which rendered it necessary to resort to some special form of taxation. But as several of our states have inheritance tax laws, opposition was raised to the federal tax or excise of the same character, and the Senate early in the debate concluded to drop it. An income tax was thereupon suggested by the "radical" or progressive Senators as a proper substitute. True, the Supreme Court killed an income tax in the '90's as un-

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constitutional, but there is a general feeling that it would reverse itself on the question in the light of recent fiscal and social developments in America and Europe. Whether it would or not, most of the progressives in any party believe that the federal government ought to have the power to tax incomes and that to remove all doubt, an amendment to the Constitution should be adopted to give it that power in express terms.

President Taft, who at one time leaned to the opinion that no constitutional amendment is necessary to enable Congress to levy income taxes without reference to state populations, believes on reflection that it is advisable to secure such an amendment. He accordingly recommended the submission by Congress to the states of an income tax amendment. In two or three years, it is expected, popular sentiment remaining what it is, the requisite indorsement of three-fourths of the states will be secured. There is little popular opposition to the submission of such an amendment and both Houses of Congress have voted for submission with practical unanimity.

But meantime, assuming that the tariff will not produce sufficient revenue, what is to be done to avert further deficits? Rather unexpectedly, President Taft proposed to Congress during the discussion of the tariff question proper, a substitute tax on the "net earnings of corporations." A tax on corporations' incomes is not, under the decisions of the Supreme Court, a tax on incomes. It is rather a tax or excise on the privilege of doing business in the corporate form. The states grant the charters and tax the corporations for the privilege, but the state taxes are light, and a federal tax, if not too heavy, would not inflict a burden too grievous to be borne.

The proposal, however, presented many puzzling questions. Why tax corporations and leave wealthy partnerships to go free? Why discourage the convenient corporate form of industry, which "peopleizes" large enterprises and widely distributes ownership? And what is meant by "net earnings?" Are the bonds of corporations to be taxed—

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that is, the part of the income set aside for interest on bonds —or are only the stockholders to pay the proposed two per cent. tax? If only the latter, why should one class of investors be burdened and another favored? And what is to prevent corporations from substituting bonds for stocks, as some have done lately? The President spoke of supervision of corporations as a desirable end to be promoted by a tax on earnings, but the corporations are not at one as to the need of supervision. Suppose, it is asked, the methods of the examiners and inspectors of books and records become inquisitorial? How is abuse of power to be guarded against? Why should the "innocent" and conservative corporations be supervised and regulated by the federal government at all? Why should they suffer for the sins of the offending monopolies and the lawbreakers?

All such questions as these were promptly suggested by the apparently simple proposal, and they are still under animated and earnest discussion at this writing, the amount of the tax being uncertain. The opposition to the tax is growing, and even some of its defenders regard it as a makeshift. A tax on all incomes above a certain amount would doubtless be fairer to all concerned. The objection to "inquisitorial" methods would remain, but the experience of England, with its permanent income tax, deprives the argument of weight. Incomes can be reached at their source, and evasion prevented without excessive regulation and espionage.

### The Death of a Moral Leader

Dr. Edward Everett Hale died on June 10, in his eighty-eighth year. A long, noble, active, useful and exemplary life came in a quiet and gentle way to its end. Only a few months ago Dr. Hale contributed to these pages a noteworthy and inspiring article on the evolution of the peace movement in the United States. His mind was clear and vigorous, his interest in life and all its worthy phases keen and deep, and his love of work inexhaustible. He was chaplain of the federal Senate at the time of his death.

Outwardly Dr. Hale's life was uneventful. He studied theology in his youth and became a Unitarian minister in 1846. Most of his life he spent in Worcester, Boston, and New England. But as writer, lecturer, editor, organizer, preacher, philanthropist and peace worker he found full and even strenuous occupation for his mind and his energies. His acquaintance in intellectual and literary circles was wide, his influence on men and women great and profound. He believed in self-culture and self-help; he had an abiding faith in human nature. He stimulated the organization of the Lend-a-Hand Clubs and was an enthusiastic supporter of the Chautauqua movement. He found time to write a number of books of permanent value, the most popular of which is "The Man Without a Country," a tale of pure and passionate patriotism. The cause of human brotherhood, international peace and arbitration, had in him an ardent and convincing apostle. He was not given to hasty criticism or to uncharitable interpretations, but he had no patience with fallacies and cheap, sophistical excuses for wrong, and in combating them he did not hesitate to use mild irony and vigorous language. He was not aggressive, but he did not believe that righteousness would prevail without labor, sacrifice and effort. His optimism was the optimism of good works and fruitful propaganda.

Men, however upright and great and valuable to their fellows they may be, must die. But to have lived a sweet, beautiful life; to have guided thousands of eager readers and listeners into the path of virtue and truth and sympathy; to have furthered the highest moral and spiritual welfare of one's country and one's people, is the greatest glory possible on this earth. Dr. Hale achieved this glory and enjoyed the inward serenity and happiness which come from a sense of duty performed and of one's best self given the sincerest and fullest expression. There is an example in his life for all who either in pulpit or with pen would serve humanity. There is a lesson in it of simplicity, dignity, courage and patient labor.

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## Liberal Education Without College

The steady democratization of education is a fact which many writers have noted with satisfaction. A great step forward was taken when the principle was established that society owes every child a "common school education." Compulsory education has generally been considered the condition of intelligent citizenship. But democracy could not long remain satisfied with the "three R's." Life and industry call for more; the hand must be educated as well as the mind, and the heart, the emotions, as well as the hand. Hence the demand in late years for industrial training, for manual arts, for domestic science in the common schools and high schools. Hence the demand for trade schools and, in England, for scholarships to enable the poor to use such schools. Many educators are demanding the overhauling of the entire educational curriculum, declaring that studies ought to be vital and practical and calculated to fit the young for the duties of contemporary life. Even the best of our universities have been severely criticised recently and shown to be in need of radical reforms.

Along with and as part of this tendency it is interesting to note the extension of college influence by means of lectures and correspondence courses, the growth of summer schools attempting to do the work of Chautauqua on a smaller scale and with less system, the increasing coöperation between schools and libraries, the prosperity of classical and semi-classical, scientific and semi-scientific "book libraries," and the renewed attention to "lists of best books." Dr. Eliot, the ex-president of Harvard, signified his retirement to private life by undertaking the formation of a "5-foot library," such library to contain all the literature that the busy person, the person of few educational advantages, needs in order to supply himself with "the essentials of a liberal education." Dr. Eliot's position in our intellectual and higher politico-social life is such that widespread interest in his scheme was inevitable. His list—still partial—has provoked much criticism for its omissions, as well as

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for some of the old and forgotten volumes selected to go into it, but in the making of "lists of best books" there is plenty of scope for individual judgment and taste. Dr. Eliot intends to emphasize the ethical, the philosophical, the character-forming sides of literature. It is the books that have proved historically potent, influential, epoch-making that he has chiefly recommended, believing that fiction and humor generally take care of themselves. We shall reproduce the list here, when completed, for the benefit of our readers, who appreciate the benefits of plan and system in the study of books.

Whatever may be thought, however, of particular lists or "libraries," it is an important fact that democracy realizes the need of the higher, the so-called liberal education and the correlative fact that those who cannot go to college are not necessarily shut out of these higher intellectual and moral privileges. Life and literature are great educators where there is guidance, a philosophy, a point of view. None of us moderns can know all the sciences and arts and speculations and thoughts which the ever-evolving world possesses. None, however, need go through life ignorant of the essentials of true civilization and true culture. Universities and colleges do more and more for the poorer classes, but they will never do enough and they can never displace the more informal, the modest educational agencies.

### The Unification of South Africa

Who would have predicted a union of British and Dutch South Africa ten years ago? Who would have predicted it at the end of the Transvaal war? Dreamers and empire builders talked about union or federation, but as a remote future ideal. Yet it is almost an established fact. During the life of the present parliament and the present British ministry union will actually be effected. All the colonies voted on the proposed constitution and adopted it. Even Natal, which is British in spirit and has but a small Boer population, has voted at a referendum for unification by a decisive majority.

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The discussion of unification was begun shortly after crown government of the conquered Boer states was replaced by complete autonomy. That was in 1907. Even then the loyalty of the Dutch to British sovereignty and the empire was considered to be above suspicion. The English and the Boers honestly realized that peace and progress required them to live together amicably and to put aside all racial conflicts for the common good. Some imperialists in the mother country criticised the liberal government for what they thought premature and unsafe action, but the event has justified it. Unification is the next logical stride forward. It means economy in administration, the abolition of tariff barriers, better railway and other transportation facilities, uniform treatment of difficult South African problems. The Union of South Africa will take its place by the side of the Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia. It will have self government as to home affairs, and become an "independency" of Great Britain.

The constitution for the Union has been carefully considered and debated by a convention, local bodies, industrial and political, and the press. On the franchise question a compromise was reached, though the Boer demand for proportional representation, adopted at first, had to be withdrawn subsequently through fear that in many districts it would give the Dutch too great an advantage. There are to be three capitals, instead of one, at least for the initial period. The executive will reside in Cape Town, the federal parliament will meet at Pretoria, while the judiciary will sit at Bloemfontein.

The whole outcome of the events of the past decade—the war, the crushing defeat of the Boers, the reconstruction, the great autonomy, the unification—is regarded by many as a wonderful tribute to the efficiency and wisdom of British colonial policy. Others think that substantially the victory is on the Boer side, and that it is the Dutch who are to come into their own at last, though under nominal British control. Whatever the point of view may be, the facts are certainly astonishing.

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# A Reading Journey Through Spain*

## I. The Country and the People.

JOHN D. FITZ-GERALD, PH. D.
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THE United States has always been able to boast that some of its prominent men were actively interested in Spain. This has effectively prevented the public in general from losing interest in the Iberian Peninsula. We can point in our early days to Washington Irving who, while United States Minister at Madrid, took occasion to steep himself in the romantic legends of early Spain and gave us his beautiful Tales of the Alhambra. Three legends, curiously enough, had never before got into print in any language. The Spaniards themselves appreciate Irving's interest and were the first to recognize the service he had done them in thus calling attention thereto.

*NOTE—The following chapters were built up from letters written by the author during two visits to Spain. The first was in the summer of 1899: the second began in 1900 and continued until 1902. In writing those letters the author relied constantly upon Baedeker's admirable and invaluable hand-book of Spain and Portugal for statements concerning distances, dimensions of buildings and monuments, and assignments thereof to a given school or style of art. This was also done in the present work and the author takes pleasure in adding his testimony to that of other travelers concerning the meticulous exactness of Baedeker's information.

As the author did not visit the Northwest, nor the extreme West and Southwest of Spain, he has given no chapters on those sections. For the Northwest and West, however, the omission is not much to be regretted, as the reader may easily turn to the delightfully written and beautifully illustrated *Note-Book in Northern Spain*, by Mr. Archer M. Huntington. In the opinion of the present writer, the long and interesting chapter upon the bull-ring has not its equal in English.

In the majority of cases, credit has been given with each illustrated. Those ascribed to Laurent, Beauchy, Esplugas, Puig, and Garzon, and the paintings by J. Llovera and J. Garcia y Ramos, as well as three whose photographers are not known (Burgos: Arch of Santa Maria, Barcelona: Pases de Colon, and Guerrita preparing to kill) are from copies in the possession of the Hispanic Society of America. The author's thanks are due to the society for permission to reproduce the photographs which it has copyrighted. Where no credit is given with the illustration it must be understood to have been made from a photograph by the author.


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Later William Hickling Prescott, with his Life of Philip II, George Ticknor, with his History of Spanish Literature, Longfellow, with his Spanish Student, and John Hay with his Castilian Days, have constantly fanned the flame of our affection. Still more recently historians have been giving us new cause for interest in, and gratitude toward, our late enemies. We have long known what we owed to France for aid during our Revolution. We have not known much about our debt to Spain and yet that debt was considerable. Among other things Spain lent us over a million dollars. She granted our privateersmen refuge in all her harbors. She permitted the purchase of supplies by the exchange of commodities. At New Orleans, Pensacola, and Havana she showed us unusual privileges, permitting us to maintain at New Orleans a Special Commissioner, Mr. Pollock, who purchased ammunition and provisions which were sent up the Mississippi and the Ohio, and so eastward to our troops. During the whole of the war Spain maintained an agent at Philadelphia for the purpose of watching events. Last, but not least, the Count of Aranda, Spanish Ambassador at Paris, as early as March, 1775, suggested to the French government joint intervention by France and Spain in the approaching trouble between England and the Colonies.

In spite of all this, when mention is made of Spain, it has been the habit for many years past, both in this country and in Europe to shrug the shoulders and, with Nicholas Masson de Morvilliers, ask: "But, what do we owe to Spain? And during the last two centuries, the last four, the last six, what has she done for Europe?" The implication is only too plain. It is, however, entirely erroneous. It has been the custom to consider Spain as a country of barbarians and this has led to the statement, often heard, that "Africa really begins at the Pyrenees." In this statement there is just enough truth to make the half lie more dangerous than an out-and-out mis-statement would have been. Persons with that idea in mind show their own ignorance

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of the history of Spain from its earliest times to the present day, or else they forget some very obvious facts.

Consider for a moment what Silver Latin would amount to without the Rhetorician Seneca the Elder (born at Córdoba B. C. 60), without his son the Philosopher and Dramaturge, Seneca the Younger (born at Córdoba B. C. 3), without the Poet Lucan, grandson and nephew respectively of the two Senecas (born at Córdoba A. D. 39), and without the epigrams of Martial (born near Calatayud A. D. 43) and without the Institutes of Oratory and the Maxims of Quintillian (born at Calahorra A. D. 35). There were also Pomponius Mela (who was born at Tingentera, Spain, and flourished under Caligula and Claudius), and Columella (a contemporary of Seneca, and born at Cádiz). And still later we find Prudentius, the earliest of the Christian poets (said to have been born at Tarragona A. D. 348); Isidor of Seville (who died 636) who, next to Boetius and Cassiodoruss exercised the most important influence upon the general culture and literature of the Middle Ages, and whose greatest work was his *Etymologiae* or *Origines;* and Teodolfo, Spanish Bishop of Orleans, famous in the Court of Charlemagne as a poet and man of letters, and whose name will probably never be forgotten since his triumphant hymn *Gloria, laus et honor* is sung throughout the whole world on Palm Sunday.

After the dominion of Rome had disappeared Spain still kept alive the operation of the Roman system of jurisprudence, and thus passed on for the benefit of other nations in later ages the legal principles upon which the civilized codes of today are based.

The debt of the world to Spain under Jewish and Moslem influence does not belong to the field of *Belles Lettres.* It belongs rather to the field of the exact sciences, the study and interpretation of Letters and the production of the comforts and luxuries of life. It was under their domination that the learning of the Greeks and the science of the eastern peoples were kept alive when they had been lost sight of everywhere else in Europe, and this was done espe-

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cially at the great centers of Zaragoza and Córdoba. It was from the Moors, too, that the Spaniards learned how to irrigate their land and develope their agriculture. So thoroughly was that work done, especially in the neighborhood of Valencia, that the irrigating canals built by the Moors are in operation today.

The circumstances of the Reconquest gave Spain an ideal which for centuries served as its inspiration. Little by little the Moors were driven back, various Christian kingdoms emerged and were gradually absorbed by their neighbors until, with the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the consequent union of the kingdoms of Leon, Old Castile, New Castile, and Aragon and the conquest of the kingdom of Granada, with the final expulsion of the Moors, the history of Modern Spain may be said to have begun. At this same time the discovery of the New World gave Spain an undreamed of source of wealth for pushing her ambitious schemes. Charles I of Spain aspired to the position of Emperor and became such as Charles V. Not many years before this event Spain increased its territory by the conquest of Naples and Sicily, and in the early years of Charles' reign Spain's power in the new world was extended by the conquest of Mexico. From 1531 to 1541 the conquest of Peru and Chili was accomplished and Tunis had been captured in the meantime. In 1556 Charles V abdicated, and retired to Yuste and Philip II began his reign. Under him the Spanish monarchy attained its greatest extent, including the occupation of Portugal. The Spanish soldiery on land and sea was the finest in Europe, and at the battle of Lepanto in 1571 reached its highest point of glory. This leading position was not long maintained for its navy was wiped out in 1588 by the destruction of the Armada. The reputation of the land forces continued until their defeat in 1643 at the battle of Rocroy. Under Philip III (1598-1621) Spain continued its long decline. The final expulsion of the Moriscoes in 1609 was a terrible blow to the industries and agriculture of the country. During the reign of Philip IV (1621-1665) Portugal was lost,

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there was a terrible insurrection in Catalonia and the Netherlands forced the recognition of their independence. With Charles II (1665-1700) we reach the close of the Hapsburg dynasty, which began with the marriage of the Archduke of Austria, Philip the Beautiful, and Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. The Hapsburgs were followed by the Bourbons, the first of whom was Philip V, during whose reign (1701-1746) Gibraltar was taken by the English. In 1767, under Charles III, even the most Catholic country of Europe felt itself under the necessity of expelling the Jesuits. In the early nineteenth century attention was again called to Spain through the interest exhibited by France and England. In 1808 the French entered the country, and Charles IV abdicated; whereupon Ferdinand VII, his son, renounced his rights in favor of Napoleon, who declared Joseph Bonaparte to be King of Spain. The English then decided to take a hand in affairs, and began the Peninsular War, which lasted from 1808 to 1814. In 1812 the Inquisition was supressed, only to be reëstablished in 1814.* Upon the death of Ferdinand VII in 1833 Isabella II became queen of Spain and the next year saw the beginning of the first Carlist War. With the reign of Isabella II there came no change of dynasty for in 1848 she married her cousin, Francis of Assis, who was likewise a Bourbon. If by the revolution of 1868 Isabella II had not been expelled from Spain her reign would have been seven years longer than that of Queen Victoria over England. From time to time throughout the nineteenth century disturbances occurred in the Spanish empire and one after another of her colonies renounced their allegiance to the mother country. The war of 1898 took away from Spain the last of her colonial possessions and, for the first time in centuries, she was free to attend to problems that concerned her own personal welfare. It may confidently be asserted that Spain's outlook for the future is brighter than it has been at any time in the last four hundred years.

*It was not finally abolished until 1834. Since then there have been various abortive attempts at restoration; and Don Jaime, the present Carlist pretender, is said recently to have proclaimed that if he obtains the throne of Spain he will restore the Inquisition.

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In a previous paragraph we have spoken of Spanish literature, so far as it concerned Silver Latin, but that was not its only period of importance. As early as 1427 Spain possessed complete translations both of Virgil and Dante, both due to the pen of Don Enrique de Villena. Palencia produced in 1490 the earliest Latin dictionary with definitions in Spanish. It was driven from the field in 1492 by another due to Don Antonio de Nebrija. In 1610 Covarrubias write the first dictionary in any modern language. In 1739 the Spanish Royal Academy completed in six volumes its Dictionary of the Spanish Language, and there was no dictionary in any other modern language to be compared to it. These matters of translation and lexicography may justly be said not to belong to literature, properly so-called; but even in creative work Spain can well hold her own. In 1499 appeared the *Celestina*, a dialogued novel of unknown authorship, which spread like wildfire all over Europe, and engendered a whole host of followers, at home and abroad. In 1559 appeared another anonymous work which was destined in its turn to be the beginning of a school: the well-known *Lazarillo de Tormes*, the first and greatest of the modern picaresque novels, one of whose latest descendants was Miss Michelson's "In the Bishop's Carriage." Both the *Celestina* and the *Lazarillo* were early translated into English, and so well were the translations made that they have stood the test of time and become themselves classics. In 1605 appeared the greatest single book ever produced by any literature, a book whose hero has become a household companion in every civilized country; and when that has been said it is hardly necessary to quote his name: *Don Quijote de la Mancha*. Simultaneously with this great movement in the novel, as represented by Cervantes, Alemán, Guevara, Quevedo, and others, Spain astounded Europe with its dramatic productions; and the works of Guillén de Castro, Lope de Vega, Tirso de Molina, Alarcón, Calderón and Moreto, to say nothing of a host of others, were the sources drawn upon by most of the dramatists of Europe. Especially great is the debt of the French dramatists

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Lecnese Peasants. Painting by Sorolla. In the Museum of the Hispanic Society of America.

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Gypsy Bull-Fighter's Family. (Portraits.) Painting by Zuloaga. In the Museum of the Hispanic Society of America.

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Mlle. Lucienne Bréval as Carmen. Painting by Zuloaga. In the Museum of the Hispanic Society of America.

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Old Castilian Peasant. Painting by Sorolla.

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and we may recall, as typical of that debt, such authors as Rotrou, Corneille and Molière, and the fact that the first great tragedy in French literature, *Le Cid,* and the first great comedy, *Le Menteur,* are confessedly drawn from Castro's *Les Mocedades del Cid* and Alarcón's *La Verdad Sospechosa,* respectively. English readers who cannot enjoy Calderón in the original may still get some idea of his charm by consulting the excellent translations of several of his best dramas, as they appear in the works of Edward Fitzgerald.

A form of Spanish literature in which English and Americans should be particularly interested, is one in which Spain is richer than either England or Scotland. I mean the ballads, called in Spanish *Romances.* Some of the most beautiful of these have inspired no less a poet than Lockhart.

In the eighteenth century Spain's literary star, like her political star, suffered an eclipse, which lasted until well into the nineteenth century. Although with the works of Pereda Spain had ceased to follow French models, the world at large did not know it, nor for that matter did Spain; and it was not until 1873, with the appearance of *Pepita Jiménez,* due to the pen of the most Attic of all the Spanish prose writers of all ages, Juan Valera, that Spain again came into her own, and people realized that the novel in Spain in the nineteenth century was likely to take rank with its progenitor of the seventeenth century. Such has since proven to be the case. The novel as a literary genre throughout the rest of Europe is largely decadent and a bad imitation of French models. Only in Spain is it virile and autochthonous. In addition to Pereda and Valera (the scholarly diplomat whose residence in Washington as representative of his country is still remembered with pleasure), mention should be made of Pérez Galdós, Alarcón, Palacio, Valdés, Blasco, Ibáñez, Nogales, Clarin, and Emilia Pardo Bazan.

The other form of literature in which Spain attained supremacy in the seventeenth century has also had its renais-

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sance in the nineteenth century, and the drama, beginning with Moratin's *El Sí de las Ninas,* which appeared in 1806, and continuing with the works of Zorilla, Tamayo y Baus, Larra Gil y Zárate, Nuñez de Arce, Guimerá, the Quintero brothers, Carrión, Aza, Galdós, and Echegaray, ranks with the best dramatic productions of any country. With at least two of these authors Americans are acquainted, for only a few years ago, under the management of Mrs. Fiske, the American public was given the privilege of seeing "Marta of the Lowlands," a very powerful drama by Guimerá; and this winter Mr. and Mrs. Faversham have themselves performed the masterpiece of Echegaray, *El Cran Galeoto,* under the title of "The World and his Wife." Echegaray's work always exhibits some ethical idea, although he never descends to mere preaching. Because of the great predominance of the ideal in his work, which is nowhere better exemplified than in *El Gran Galeoto,* Echegaray in 1904 received half of the Nobel prize in Literature, the other half going to Mistral, the poet of Provence.

Although not equal to the drama or the novel, Spanish lyric poetry in the nineteenth century is far from negligible, and Juan Valera, in a five-volume anthology devoted to the subject, quotes poems from no less than one hundred and fifty-two poets whose works he thinks well of, and about whom, as factors in the development thereof, he wishes to speak.

No country in Europe offers so attractive a field for art studies, since nowhere else can so many styles be studied in the setting for which they were made. Here, for example, the whole history of Moorish and Arabian art from its earliest stages to its highest development may be studied with comparative ease.

Roman architecture may be studied at Italica, Tarragona, Segovia, and Sagunto. Remains of Visgothic architecture are scarce, but some of them may be seen at Córdoba, Toledo, and Barcelona. The Romanesque style may be studied at Segovia and Ávila. For Gothic one should go to Salamanca, Tarragona, Segovia, Búrgos, Toledo, and

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Sevilla. In Catalonia they developed the broadest and flattest arches to be found in the Gothic style.

Arabian architecture may be studied anywhere throughout the southern half of the peninsula, and chiefly at Toledo, Sevilla, and Granada.

Spanish sculpture is less well-known than most other forms of Spanish art, and yet it deserves a better fate. In visiting the various architectural monuments of the country one should spend as much time in studying the sculptures as one gives to the paintings. In broad terms there may be said to be two styles of sculpture—the Plateresque and the Grotesque, which latter was also called the Monstrous Style. Of the Baroque style one can speak with less equanimity because, while it was the rage, many priceless treasures of previous ages were destroyed to make room for it.

Spanish painting is for various reasons better known than Spain's other forms of art. Despite the vast number of masterpieces to be found scattered throughout Europe, no Spanish artist of the classical period can be studied anywhere so well as in Spain. It may be said, too, in passing, that for a knowledge of many of the Flemish and Venetian painters a visit to Spain is imperative. Although the most brilliant period of Spanish art belongs to the century of Spain's greatest glory, in which we meet Ribera, Zurbarán, Murillo, and Velásquez, many artists of a later period well repay attention, and no one will regret the time devoted to Goya (the Spanish Hogarth), Madrazo (the portrait painter), Pradilla and Fortuny; for Spanish painting, like the Spanish drama and the Spanish novel, has had its nineteenth century renaissance. Today Spanish painters are among the foremost artists of the world, and for proof of that statement we have only to turn to the works of Zuloaga and Sorolla,* which were recently exhibited at the Hispanic Society of

*In addition to the halftones which accompany this chapter illustrating the work of Sorolla and Zuloaga there will be found eight pictures illustrating the work of the same painters in an article entitled "Two Spanish Painters of Genius," by Leonard D. Abbott, which immediately follows the "Reading Journey Through Spain" in the pages of this magazine.

America, in New York, and the younger men who had canvases in this year's *Salon* at Paris.

Perhaps no Spanish art is so little known and so little understood abroad as Spanish music, and yet I venture to say it is one of the most characteristic, if not *the* most characteristic of the arts of the peninsula. Unfortunately, it does not seem to stand transplantation, or exportation, and unless we can go to the country we shall probably be obliged to get our knowledge of it from Bizet's "Carmen." While Spanish music is not the easiest music in the world to understand, we may safely assert that anyone who will take the pains to study it carefully and sympathetically will be amply repaid, for after awhile it begins to take hold of you, and when once it has got into your blood the charm is undeniable, and you wonder that there ever was a time when it did not enthrall you.

This is the country and this the people we are going to visit in the following chapters.

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# II. The Basque Provinces

AS everyone who travels to Europe goes to Paris, we shall begin our journey to Spain, the romantic country of the Dons, from the gayest capital of the world. The express leaves at ten thirty, and twelve hours later we catch our first glimpse of the towering peaks of the Pyrenees. At noon we cross the border, the celebrated little river Bidassoa, on opposite sides of which lie the frontier towns of Hendaya and Irun. At the latter point we meet the Spanish customs officials and immediately realize that we have reached the land of Don Quixote.

As a rule French customs officials are very courteous, but they are nonetheless business-like. In Spain, however, courtesy is carried to the extreme, and business seems to be the last thing thought of. After a few formal questions, our luggage is passed. Beside us is a Frenchman in whose baggage a customs official, in spite of his unbusiness-like examination, discovers a bottle. The Frenchman, upon being asked what it contains, declares that he does not know, as it was presented to him by a friend as the train left Paris. Of course it will be easy to find out by pulling the cork. This having been done, the customs officer, as being the court official in the case, is asked by the traveler to test the contents. He does so, and declares it to be very good brandy. The Frenchman professes to be delighted, invites the official to take another drink, and remarks that, as the package is no longer intact, there is of course no duty to pay. With a bow both gentlemen decide to close the incident.

Spanish culinary arrangements being very different from those of the more familiar countries of Europe, it would perhaps be well briefly to describe what they are. For breakfast, taken at any hour of the morning, and sometimes served in bed, one gets café au lait, or more characteristically a small cup of chocolate, flavored with cinnamon, and so thick that it cannot be drunk. With it small rolls are served which are used as spoons for dipping up the

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chocolate. For dinner, and a Spaniard practically eats two dinners, one at noon and the other at night, the following may serve as a hotel sample: Soup; Spanish beans and corned beef; string beans and salt pork; fish; pork chops and potatoes; artichokes; chicken; apricot pudding, strawberries, fruits and a quart bottle of wine. If perchance your bottle becomes empty before you have finished your meal, the waiter quite naturally brings your a second. Garlic is used in many dishes, but usually in discreet quantities. Most meats and vegetables, when not simply boiled, are cooked in oil. Fried eggs and omelets are always so treated, and anyone who has not yet eaten eggs fried in oil does not know how delicious fried eggs really can be, provided the oil is of good quality. In the meal which is not intended to be dinner soup is replaced by eggs in some style. In the afternoon—any time after four o'clock—one is supposed to take a walk and spend some time at a pleasantly located café. Here coffee or tea, with bread and butter, or lady fingers is the usual diet.

Spain has two celebrated national dishes, the *cocido,* or *olla podrida,* and the *paella Valenciana.* The first of these has as its basis the well-known chick pea (*garbanzo*), to which are added boiled beef, salt pork and any number of vegetables. The second one has as its basis rice which, after being boiled for a certain time, is then thrown into a bath of hot oil. When finished each grain of rice, while perfectly cooked, still retains its shape. The other ingredients are chicken, which after having been partially boiled is fried in oil, hot peppers, a few peas, some salt pork, pieces of sausage, small clams or, if preferred, eels, and the whole flavored with saffron. Here again no description can really do justice to the dish, but it can be confidently asserted that there is no more delicious way of serving rice.

After a leisurely luncheon, which is very good, we again take train, this time on a wide-gauge Spanish railroad, and an hour later reach San Sebastián, the charming capital of the Basque province of Guipúzcoa.

San Sebastián is one of the prettiest, cleanest and most

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attractive cities in the north of Spain. The old city is packed in close at the foot of Monte Urgull, which was originally a rocky island. The ground between it and the mainland has since been filled in, and the new city laid out with broad streets and avenues is built thereon and follows the line of the semi-circular bay. The beach, because of its shape, has been called The Shell (*La Concha*). The bay is almost landlocked, the two extremities being formed by Monte Urgull and Monte Igueldo, and the mouth being partially closed by the island of Santa Clara. The whole forms one of the most delightful bathing spots and summer resorts in all Europe. To the west lie the Cantabrian Mountains, to the east and south the towering Pyrenees, and to the north the Bay of Biscay, so that the scenery is of the most varied.

During the summer season the city takes good care of its many thousand visitors from all over Europe. Especially to be recommended is the musical treat that it offers. Every night in the broad Boulevard which replaces the old city wall and marks the line of separation between the old city and the new, the municipal band gives excellent music. At the Casino, which is one of the most celebrated on the Continent, there is an excellent orchestra which plays every afternoon and every evening. When the weather is fine they play on the terrace, and others than members, or those who have paid for the daily admission, get the benefit thereof. In bad weather they are forced to play indoors in the large festival room, which also serves as a summer theater and ball-room. The programs of both organizations are classical and cosmopolitan, the orchestra being, if anything, a little more cosmopolitan than the municipal band, which must naturally furnish a good proportion of native music.

The Boulevard consists of a shady promenade which is very broad, and flanked by two streets or driveways. This has rendered possible a very curious state of affairs. On that side of the promenade lying nearest to the new city the more well-to-do classes seem to congregate. In the center of the promenade we find those less well-to-do and on the side nearest the old city the poorest class. All this has come

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about quite naturally and has resulted in nicknaming the three parts of the Boulevard by calling them the "parlor," the "dining-room," and the "kitchen." It is needless to say there is no hard-and-fast line between these parts.

One evening when I was attending a concert I saw a tiny girl of about five dancing among the trees. A gavotte was being played with a great deal of snap and verve, and the little girl followed absolutely the rhythm of the music, but without performing a gavotte. Instead she was making up a kind of ballet. She did it so well that I stopped to watch her. She was dancing with perfect naturalness, and in a way that showed conclusively she had never had to learn the art. Soon others noticed what was going on and a circle was rapidly formed about the little dancer, who was utterly unconscious of all that was happening about her. She followed the music with remarkable precision, and made pirouettes, ronds-de-jambe, gavotte- polka- and waltz-steps, clacking her castanets and waving her small arms to the rhythm of the music: in short, she was a consummate little artist. When the music had ceased there was prolonged and deafening applause, and the musicians had to play the piece over again. It was very interesting and pretty for, in addition to the exquisite grace of her dancing, she was a really beautiful child. Since such experiences are of frequent occurence it is not difficult to realize the truth of the proverb which says that Spanish girls are born dancing.

The music by the municipal band and by the Casino orchestra is not the only music furnished for the inhabitants of the town. In the *Paseo de la Zurriola* every Thursday night there is a ball for the populace. This *Paseo* is itself very beautiful. It is washed by the waters of Urumea River and by the ocean, and commands splendid views of the Bay of Biscay and the towering peaks of the Pyrenees which at this point seem dominated by the *Peña de Aya* known in French as the *Trois Couronnes* because of three crags that jut up above the surrounding mass. On the nights of the balls the trees of the park are festooned with many-colored lanterns and the natives, who have not yet con-

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sented to dress themselves entirely in the costume that is becoming uniform all over Europe, make a very pretty spectacle as they perform their native dances to the sound of music which, once it gets hold of you, makes an impression that can never be forgotton.

The history of San Sebastián has been long and glorious. No one knows when it was founded, but its present name comes from a monastery which existed in the tenth century. It has stood many sieges, and only recently has its fortress been dismantled. Although it is the capital of one of the Basque provinces, and although the Basque province as a whole espoused the cause of Don Cárlos in the first Carlist war, San Sebastián was the first city that proclaimed Isabella II Queen of Spain, and the last to give her shelter as she left the country in 1868. San Sebastián has been the birthplace of many celebrated characters, of whom we shall mention only two.

Admiral Antonio Oquendo, on board the *Real Capitana* in 1639, won a naval battle against the whole of the Dutch squadron. The battle was of such a nature that the opposing admiral cried out: "The *Real Capitana,* with Don Antonio Oquendo, is invincible!" A notable monument has been erected to him in the *Paseo de la Zurriola* and the figure of the admiral himself is so placed that it faces the house in which he was born, which lies across the Bay.

The other celebrated character that I wish to mention was a woman, Doña Catalina de Erauso, the nun who was a soldier. She was born in San Sebastián in 1585. At the age of four years she entered the convent where one of her aunts was Prioress. She stayed there until she was sixteen. Having then had some difficulty with another nun she ran away from the monastery in 1600, hid in the chestnut wood nearby, where she cut off her hair and, after putting on men's clothes took the road to Valladolid. There having served as page to a secretary of the King, of course under a false name, Francisco de Loyola, and having entered the service of a celebrated personage at Estalla, she returned to San Se-

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bastián where, in the very convent whence she had escaped, she heard mass at the side of her mother without being recognized. Three years later she embarked in the harbor of Pasajes for Sevilla and then went to America. She then joined the squadron commanded by Fajardo. Her military life was full of unusual experiences and she showed an exceptional courage and daring on many a hard-fought battlefield. She was several times condemned to death but somehow or other managed to escape. She rose to the rank of Ensign and then went to Rome to ask Pope Urban VIII to authorize her to continue to wear men's clothes, which was done. The King of Spain later confirmed her title to Ensign and authorized her to wear military costume. In 1630 she returned to Mexico, and died sometime after 1645. Of course such a history as this could not fail to attract attention, once she had allowed her disguise to be penetrated, and it naturally figures in the literature of the times.

Doña Catalina de Erauso. Reproduced from "St. Sébestien et Ses Environs."

In the old town there are several buildings of interest. In its center is the *Plaza de la Constitución* surrounded by arcades like the *Plaza de Guipúzcoa,* but devoid of trees. The reason for this is obvious, since this Plaza formerly served for the bull fights. All the arcades contain numbered balconies which were formerly sold whenever a bull fight occurred. At one end of this Plaza is the City Hall, a very dignified building which, among other things, contains the grand salon in which the royal family receive the natives of the province. From its balcony the town officials used to view bull fights. Since San Sebastián now possesses a very fine bull ring the fights no longer occur here. A reminiscence of former times, however, is maintained in celebration of the king's birthday. Among other things

they have a *Toro de fuego* or "fire-bull," the figure of a bull arranged with a long connecting set of fireworks along its back and carried by three men. The fireworks were started and the bull charged right and left, up and down among the crowd in the *Plaza de la Constitución* as long as the fireworks lasted. After that came the dances, some of which were national, others local, and all interesting. The royal family not being present, the privilege was granted us, as foreigners, to view the whole scene from the balcony of the *Palacio de la Constitucion.*

Two churches in the old city require attention. They are really superb in a way all their own, although I should prefer them if they were a little less gorgeous. Their great altars, of which there at least six in each are masses of gold decorations. It seems too loud, too "criard" as the French would put it. Santa María, built in the middle of the eighteenth century, is a handsome baroque building. Its groined arches are very attractive and of the Moorish type, although that is not consistently carried out. A massive gallery extends all across the front instead of down the sides and is supported by arches of the same general character. San Vicente is a curious gothic church whose general design is beautiful and symmetrical. It was built in 1507. The carvings of its over-gorgeous altars are likewise extremely artistic, when taken as works of art by themselves, but they detract from the effect of the whole Perhaps the most curious part of the exterior is the west porch and tower and the huge buttresses. The interior is decorated with some fine statues by *Ambrosio de Bengoechea,* one of the best artists who gave themselves to the new western decorative art: that of using life-sized sculptured figures instead of mere paintings, which had been the ideal striven after by the eastern iconoclasts.

In the new city we need visit but one church, that of the Good Shepherd (*Buen Pastor*), built entirely of alms collected between the years 1889 and 1897. It is constructed in pure Gothic style, with great square columns, and has none of the disturbing elements that have been mentioned

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as existing in the other churches. Directly under the cross of the nave and transepts is the altar, with one magnificently carved piece reaching almost to the beginning of the curve of the arch. It was much more restful than the other churches. Here, too, the gallery extended all across the front.

The *Palacio de la Diputación,* situated on one side of the *Plaza de Guipúzcoa,* is the building in which is carried on all the governmental work of the Province of Guipúzcoa. At the head of the grand staircase is a handsome stained-glass window which was designed by Echena and made at Munich. It represents King Alfonso VIII in the act of confirming the charters (*Fueros*) of Guipúzcoa in 1202. The rooms of the Provincial Diet are stately and beautiful.

From San Sebastián delightful excursions can be made in every direction. Two must suffice as indications, Pasajes and the *Peña de Aya.*

Pasajes de San Juan is a little Basque town built on the edge of the bay of the same name. It has only one long, narrow street, the houses often being built right across it, with an archway through them. There are no side streets at all and no horses and wagons are allowed in the town. We made our way out to the old fort at the entrance of the passage and saw an ocean steamer come in. The strait is so narrow that it almost seemed as if we could jump from the cliff to the deck of the steamer. There is in the town a curious old Basque church, containing a magnificent carved-wood altar, the wood for which was brought from South America by a man who is buried in the church.

Here, too, enclosed in a glass casket, and dressed in its princely robes of state, lies the beautiful figure of a fourteen-year-old girl known as Santa Faustina, who was the daughter of a Turkish Prince. The date of her death is not known exactly but is supposed to be somewhere in the early part of the seventeenth century. Converted to the Christian faith, she refused to obey her father's orders to return to the religion of her ancestors, and he, in bitter anger, plunged a dagger into her throat. The Christians, securing the body

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of the girl, had it hermetically sealed in a coating of wax, thus preserving it intact. It was brought to the church in Pasajes in the last century by the aforesaid José Joaquin de Ferrer y Cafranga and his brother, who also rests here.

The making of pottery is the chief business of Pasajes, and interesting pieces can be purchased at the works at prices within the reach of all. On leaving the pottery works we were rowed across the bay to the railroad station in a heavy boat, by a sturdy Basque woman, who acted as though a boatload of nine was quite the usual thing. This Bay of Pasajes is of especial interest to Americans, since it is from here that Lafayette set sail for America in 1776.

Bizcaya. Basque Peasants.
*Laurent Photograph.*

The excursion to the *Peña de Aya* is naturally of a very different nature. By train we go from San Sebastián to Irun, where we arrive at ten-thirty. Walking up the left side of the valley of Irun, we reached at noon a little clump of trees, the first bit of shade we had seen since starting. Here we took our first lunch and, after a rest of forty minutes, again set out on our upward climb. At two o'clock we were on the side of a very steep mountain. At four o'clock after a very difficult climb we reached the summit and were so worn out that we dropped as though dead and rested for a quarter of an hour before attempting to look around us. The view is charming and is to be had for 360 degrees of the circle. On the east and south we had the towering peaks (even higher than the *Peña de Aya* of the Navarrese Pyrenees mountains). To the south the beautiful valley of Oyarzun, with its little river shining like a

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Panorama

silver thread in the late afternoon sunshine. To the southwest lay San Sebastián, its Concha, the Isla Santa Clara and the mountains at the entrance of the bays: Monte Ulia, Monte Urgull, and Monte Igueldo. To the west and north was the valley and city of Irun, Hendaya on the other side of the French frontier, the Bidassoa River, the international bridge and the French coast as far as Biarritz. We had come up the back of the mountain. On the front were almost impassable precipices and declivities. We all of us regretted that the next day was Sunday, for if it had not been we should have stayed on the mountain all night so as to enjoy the beautiful scene by moonlight, and as the moon was full the scene would have been bewitching. After feasting our eyes for a period all too short we turned back to join our friend, not taking exactly the same route we

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Sebastián.

had come by, but steering for a mine-house that was visible, and from which we could easily round the mountain above the valley where he was awaiting us. With the left leg straight out ahead of us, and seated on our right heels, we literally slid as on a toboggan, in ten minutes the distance it had taken us thirty minutes to climb.

In speaking of the Basque provinces one should above all things not neglect to mention their national sport, the *Juego de Pelota*. It is a kind of hand-ball, but instead of using the bare hand the players wear a curiously-shaped glove, which is long and curved like an elephant's tusk, with a hollow groove on the inner side of the curve. The ball is expelled with terrific force and the courts are consequently larger, and the wall higher and longer than is the case with ordinary hand ball. No village in the Basque provinces

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Pasajes. General View of the Harbor.

*Laurent Photograph*

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is without its *frontón*, and San Sebastián has three. The game has become popular all over Spain and was transferred even to the colonies. As in all sports of the kind in Spain it is accompanied with fierce and reckless betting. It was because of this feature that the United States Government had some difficulty in its attempts to control the game during our temporary occupation of Cuba.

In Spain there are three Basque provinces, Bizcaya, Guipúzcoa, and Álava, and they contain about two-thirds of the total Basque population of the world, which numbers about a half million. The Basques are racially and linguistically a conundrum. For years scholars have been disputing about the matter and we do not yet know to whom to relate them as brothers, nor to what group to affiliate their language. They themselves claim to be the oldest race in Europe, and perhaps they are, although one of the theories would take them out of Europe and relate them to the Japanese. Still another theory relates them to the Celts of Ireland. They are a big-boned, sturdy people, proud of their stock and tenacious of their language and customs. The children before attaining school age usually cannot take Castilian, nor even understand it when spoken to them. This of course makes the problem of the elementary school instruction very difficult.

Although Guipúzcoa and San Sebastián, by reason of its being the summer court, have been treated at some length the other provinces have likewise points of importance. Bilbao, the capital of Bizcaya, is an important mining center and one of the principal seaports on the north coast. It has been famed for centuries for its iron and steel and for its swords, which were known as far away as England and as early as Shakespeare, for in his time a good sword was known as a "Bilbo." Their quality rivaled the celebrated blades of Toledo and they could be bent point to hilt. The capital of Álava is Vitoria, which was founded by one of the kings of the Visigoths in 581. On the outside of the choir of the Gothic church of San Miguel there hung, until 1841, a celebrated sword, or knife, known as the *Machete*

*Vitoriano.* This was used whenever a civil governor of the Basque provinces took his oath of office, which included the phrase: "May my head be cut off with this knife, if I do not defend the charters of my fatherland." The knife is now kept in the Town Hall. Vitoria is of interest, furthermore, because it was the scene of the celebrated battle of that name between the French under King Joseph, and Marshal Jourdan, and the British under the Duke of Wellington, which battle practically decided the War of Independence in Spain.

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# II Old Castile.

THE central part of Spain consists of an enormous plateau of an average height of twenty-five hundred feet. This plateau includes the ancient kingdoms of Leon, Old Castile, New Castile, and Estremadura. The whole district is almost devoid of trees, chiefly because of the character of the soil and climate, but also because the peasant in central Spain is opposed to trees since, in his mind, they harbor too many birds and the birds eat up his crops. In spite of the general height the district divides up into two natural basins, which were the beds of prehistoric lakes and correspond roughly to Leon and Old Castile, and New Castile and Estremadura.

Leaving San Sebastián at three o'clock in the afternoon we soon come to Tolosa to the northwest of which lies the convent of San Ignacio de Loyola, on the road between Azpéitia and Azcóitia. This church was built on the site of the house in which Loyola, the founder of the Society of Jesus, was born. About an hour further on we reach the town of Zumárraga, which is of interest to Americans as being the birthplace of Miguel López de Legazpi, who conquered the Philippines, in 1571. An interesting example of the irony of fate is the fact that the province erected a bronze statue to Legazpi in 1897, only a year before the Philippines were to be lost to Spain.

At seven o'clock we passed through Vitoria, of which we have already spoken, and about two hours later reached the celebrated *Garganta,* or Gorge, of Pancorbo. The beautiful scenery of the gorge is not its only interest. During the middle ages it is believed that there were two or three bands of criminals devoted to a specific trade, namely, that of child stealing. The children thus obtained were kept in various secluded mountain fastnesses, and were tortured and made cripples (special predilection being exhibited for the production of humpbacks and dwarfs), so that they might be sold later to kings and princes to serve as


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court fools. The Gorge of Pancorbo was said to be the home of one of these infamous bands.

Shortly after leaving Pancorbo we passed the confines of Old Castile and reached the town of Briviesca, which is unimportant except for the fact that in 1388, at a meeting of the Cortes held here, it was decreed that the heir apparent to the throne of Castile should bear the title "Prince of Asturias," which has continued to be the title to the present time. At eleven o'clock we reached Búrgos, a city founded, so tradition says, in 884 by Diego Rodríguez Porcelos, a Castilian count. The city lies at a height of 2785 feet and its climate is very severe. Its winters are extremely cold and its summers excessively hot. The proverbial phrase: *nueve meses de invierno, tres de infierno* —"Nine months of winter and three of Hades," is said of several places in Spain, and particularly of Madrid and Búrgos, but its real source was Búrgos. The city of Búrgos is the capital of the province of Búrgos and was, at one time, the capital of the kingdom of Old Castile.

Two things predominate in this city: the cathedral and the personality of the great national hero, Ruy Díaz de Bivar, better known as "The Cid Campeador."

Not far from the castle are the three stone monuments which mark the site on which stood the home in which "The Cid" was born. The castle itself, which crowns the height and was the residence of the sturdy warrior, Fernán Gonzalez, Count of Castile, who died in 970, witnessed the marriage of "The Cid" to Ximena in 1074, and also that of Edward I of England to Eleanor of Castile in 1254. In the church of Santa Águeda there once occurred an interesting ceremony. King Sancho, brother of Alfonso VI, had been killed under suspicious circumstances at the battle of Zamora. Before permitting Alfonso VI to succeed to the thone, "The Cid" forced him to swear that he had had no hand in his brother Sancho's death. "The Cid" was evidently not convinced by the royal oath, for he obliged Alfonso to repeat it twice.

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This insistence on the part of "The Cid" is believed by many to have been the cause of his ultimately falling into disfavor. As is well known the King thrice exiled his intrepid questioner. Near the river stands the *Arco de Santa María,* an interesting gateway ornamented with the statues of various celebrities, and among them Fernan González and "The Cid."

The cathedral, which was founded in 1221 by Ferdinand III. and Bishop Maurice, an Englishman, is constructed of white limestone. It belongs to the best Gothic style and its construction occupied more than three hundred years. Mr. Street in his "Gothic Architecture in Spain" gives a good detailed description, which he closes with the following paragraphs:

"I have now in a general way gone over the whole of this very interesting church and have said enough, I hope, to prove that popular report has never overrated its real merits, though no doubt it has regarded too much those points only of the fabric which to my eye seemed to be least worthy of praise—the late additions to it rather than the old church itself. As to the charm of the whole building from every point of view there cannot be two opinions. It has in a large degree that real picturesqueness which we so seldom see in French gothic interiors, whilst at the same time it still retains much of that fine Early Pointed work which could hardly have been the work of any but one who knew well the best French buildings of his day; whoever he was—and amid the plentiful mention of later artists I have looked in vain for any mention of him—he was no servile reproducer of foreign work. The treatment of the triforium throughout is evidently an original conception; and it is to be noted that the dog-tooth enrichment is freely used, and that the bells of the capitals throughout are octagonal with concave sides. The crocketing of the pinnacles is, I believe, quite original; and the general planning and construction of the building is worthy of all praise. Nor was the sculptor less worthy of praise than the architect The carving of the foliage in the early work is good and very plentiful; the figured sculpture is still richer, and whether in the thirteenth century transept doors, the fourteenth century cloisters, or the fifteenth century Retablos, is amazingly good and spirited. The thirteenth century figures are just in the style of those Frenchmen who always conveyed so riant and piquant a character both of face and attitude to their work. The later architects all seem to have wrought in a fairly original mode; and even where architects were brought from Germany, there was some influence evidently used to prevent their work being a mere repetition of what was being done in their own land; and so aided by the admirable skill of the Spanish artists who worked under them, the result is much more happy than might have been expected. Much, no doubt, of the picturesque effect of such a church is owing to the way in which it has been added to from time to time; to the large number, there-

fore, of personal interests, embodied in it, the variety of styles and parts each of them full of individuality, and finally to the noble memorials of the dead which abound in it. In France—thanks to revolutions and whitewash without stint—the noblest churches have a certain air of baldness which tires the eye of an Englishman used to our storied cathedrals; but in Spain this is never the case, and we may go to Burgos, as we may anywhere else in the land, certain that we shall find in each cathedral much that will illustrate every page of the history of the country, if well studied and rightly read.

"There is one point in which for picturesque effect few countries can vie with Spain—and this is the admission of light. In her brilliant climate it seems to matter not at all how many of the windows are blocked up or destroyed; all that results is a deeper shadow thrown across an aisle, or a ray of light looking all the brighter by contrast; and, though it is often a hard matter to see to draw inside a church on the brightest day, it is never too dark for comfort, and one comes in from the scorching sun outside and sits down in the darkest spot of the dark church with the utmost satisfaction. I saw an evidence here one night of the natural aptitude of the people for such effects, in the mode of lighting up the cathedral for an evening service in a large chapel at the east end. There was one lantern on the floor of the nave, another in the south transept, and the light burning before the altar; and in the large chapel was a numerous congregation, some sitting on the floor, some kneeling, some standing, whilst a priest, holding a candle in his hand, read to the people from the pulpit. In this chapel the only other light was from the lighted candles on the altar. The whole church was in this way just enough lighted to enable you to see your way, and to avoid running against the cloaked forms that trod stealthily about."

The Gothic cloisters are not the least notable part of this marvellous building. From them we may enter the ancient *Capilla del Corpus Cristi,* on the north wall of which is fastened a chest which Theophile Gautier calls the "oldest trunk in the world." It is said to be the chest that "The Cid" filled with sand, covered with rich leather and brass nails, and then gave to the Jews Rachel and Vidas as security for six hundred marks which he wished to borrow from them. One of the conditions of the pledge was that the Jews should not look at the contents of the chest for a whole year, and that if they did they forfeited their right to the return of the money. Shortly afterwards they discovered the hoax, and in spite of that fact "The Cid" later did redeem his pledge.

Outside the city of Búrgos, and at a distance of seven miles is the convent of *San Pedro de Cardeña,* which for many years was the burial place of "The

Cid" and Ximena. These bones of "The Cid' and his wife are now preserved in the Town Hall of Búrgos.

A three-hour ride in the train takes us from Búrgos to Valladolid, the favorite residence of the rulers of Castile and for a while, under Philip II, the capital of the great Spanish Empire. In 1469 Ferdinand and Isabella were married here. Those who have read the brilliant masterpiece of Le Sage will remember that it was at Valladolid that Gil Blas practiced medicine under Doctor Sangredo. At one time Valladolid was justly celebrated for its University which, even now, numbers about one thousand students, and, founded by a bull of Clement XI. in 1346, attained its greatest importance after the decline of Salamanca. Its library contains some twelve thousand volumes, the chief interest of which attaches to a very valuable collection of Bibles in different languages and a magnificent manuscript of the Commentary on the Book of Revelation by Beatus.

Across the river Pisuerga there is a bridge about which a curious legend is related. The story runs that the Countess Doña Eylo, wife of the Count Pedro Ansúrez, to whom the lordship of the city had been granted by the King of Castile, Leon, and Galicia, built the bridge during the absence of her lord. On his return he considered the bridge too narrow and built another alongside of it, so that they are said to have built the bridge *"a medias,"* that is to say, each one building half. Traces of this double construction are still to be seen.

Leaving Valladolid by the Northern express we reach Ávila, 3,655 feet above the sea. At Ávila we go down into the valley to the Dominican convent of *Santo Tomás*. Historically the chief interest of this convent is to be found in a superb marble monument of the young prince John, the only son of Ferdinand and Isabella, who died in 1497. The death of this young prince so affected the whole nation that it became the subject of numberless ballads, some of which, although ignored for

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centuries by literary people, survived in the memory of the peasants and have only recently been collected (both words and music) by a scholarly woman, the wife of a professor in the University of Madrid, Doña María Goyri de Menéndez Pidal.

From this convent we return to the city and begin walking around the fine old walls which are its chief glory, and are in a state of perfect preservation, in spite of the fact that they were constructed from 1090 to 1099. The city is built in a somewhat irregular quadrangle, the longer sides pointing from the railroad to the river Adaja, the smaller end being on the river and the wider end opposite toward the station. We regained the city at one of the angles. From this point half way down one of the long sides there is a fine promenade and a beautiful little park outside the wall. From it there are attractive mountain views. The shape of the city is due to the form of the rocky flat-topped ridge on which it stands and which rises abruptly from the surrounding plain. Three sides of the ridge are very steep. The fourth side, the short one near the river, is of easy approach and consequently the strongest towers and gate were put on that side. The old bridge, with its five arches, is still in a fine state of preservation. Going farther we find at the other end the church of *San Vicente,* which is considered the finest Romanesque building at Ávila. Under the cross of the nave and transept is the tomb of Saint Vincent, for whom the church is named, and his sisters, Saints Sabina and Christeta. All were martyred by having their heads cut off, and the stone on which it was done is preserved in the crypt. The tomb consists of a highly carved marble sarcophagus of the thirteenth century, surmounted by a canopy resting on coupled columns. A Jew is said to have been the sculptor of the sarcophagus, and while he was at work on it an enormous serpent wound itself around his neck. In his fright he called on the Virgin, and she appeared to him; the snake wriggled away and the Jew was converted.

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Búrgos. Bridge, Arch of Santa María, and Cathedral.

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Búrgos Cathedral. Reproduced from Street's "Gothic Architecture in Spain."

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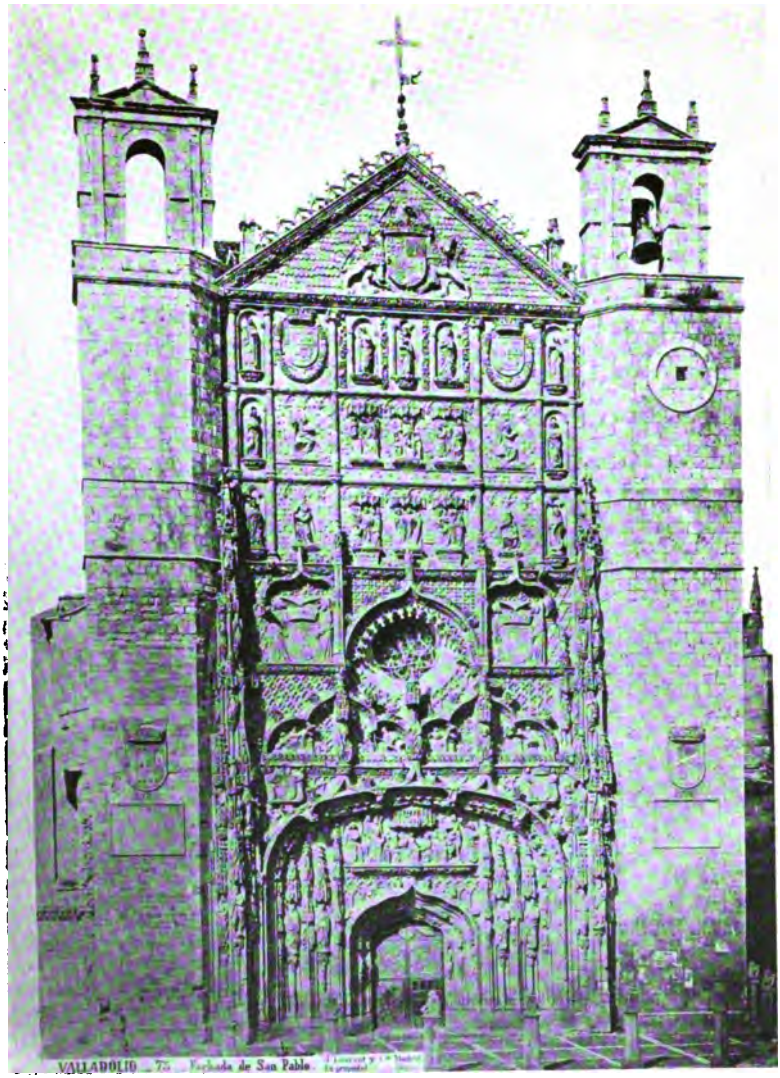


Valladolid. Façade of San Pablo.
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Walls along the Rastro.

Gate of the Bridge.

Along the North Wall.

Puerta de San Vicente.

Roman Walls at Ávila.

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Segovia. General View of the Roman Aqueduct.
*Laurent Photograph.*

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Segovia. Two Views of the Alcázar.
*Laurent Photographs.*

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La Granja. Fountain.

La Granja. Gardens.

Segovia. Peasants of the Province.
*Laurent Photograph.*

Segovia. Casa de los Picos.
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From *San Vicente* we returned to the city through the picturesque *Puerta de San Vicente,* one of the nine gates in the city walls, and went directly to the cathedral which is dedicated to San Salvador. Although it contains many valuable works of art, its chief interest to me lies in its massive fortress-like structure. It was founded originally, so at least says tradition, by Fernan González, the mighty Count of Castile. It was begun again, however in 1091, after the final conquest of the city of Ávila by Alvar Garcia of Navarre. To these early beginnings it owes its castle-like massiveness. Its interior is essentially a Gothic building of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The oldest part of the church is the east end, and at this point the parapet projects beyond the city wall, but looks from the outside as though it were really a part of the wall. Behind the parapet is a passage connecting with that of the walls themselves so that the defenders might have easy access from one point to another. As the cathedral was thus obliged to be its own fortification, it had naturally to be very thick and strong. Some idea of its enormous proportions may be had from the fact that off from the apse and enclosed within the thickness of these walls there are nine semi-circular chapels which do not show from the exterior. The interior is impressive and is lighted by some exquisite stained glass windows. From

El Paular. Tabernacle. View from Lower Altar.

El Paular. Tabernacle. View from Higher Altar.

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the transepts around the Capilla Mayor runs a double ambulatory, out of which open the aforementioned semi-circular chapels.

Until the expulsion of the Moriscoes in 1610 Ávila was one of the most flourishing towns in all Spain. Even today no traveler should fail to visit it because of its unusual situation and its many beautiful ancient buildings, such as, for example, the palaces of the Duque de la Roca and the Conde de Polentinos. Likewise one should not fail to visit the Convent of Santa Teresa, which was built on the site of the house in which the saint was born in 1515. Interest in Santa Teresa has recently been revived because of a drama written about her by a well-known Frenchman, Catulle Mendès.

We left Ávila for Segovia, the chief marvel of which is that wonderful monument of an age long gone by, the Roman Aqueduct. It probably dates from the time of Trajan's emperorship, and as he died in 117 A. D., the Aqueduct must be pretty close to eighteen hundred years old. It serves to bring the water of the Fuenfría from the Guadarrama Mountains to the city, a distance of about ten miles. The Aqueduct proper, I mean the part which demanded so much engineering skill, is nine hundred yards long and crosses the deep valley which surrounds Segovia. It has one hundred and nineteen arches which, according to the formation of the ground, vary from twenty-three feet to ninety-four feet. For three hundred yards it is carried on a double stage of arches, and this is the part that we had directly in front of us and towering high above us as we stood in the Plaza. The only part in the whole structure where cement was used was in the open conduit for the water. In 1901 when we visited it the cement was so hard that if one tried to chip it off a piece of the stone always came out with it. If recent rumors from Spanish newspapers be correct, the government has this spring decided to discontinue the active use of the Aqueduct.

From the Aqueduct we went to the cathedral on the

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*Plaza Mayor.* It is in the form of an enormous gothic basilica which has been very well described by Mr. Street in his "Gothic Architecture in Spain." The most interesting part of it is that forming the superb Gothic Cloisters, which are reached through a beautiful Gothic portal. The cloisters were built in 1524 (that is, they were finished then), one year before the present cathedral was begun. They contain three monuments of special interest: that of Gil de Hontañon and his son, the architects of the cathedral; that of the Infante, Pedro, son of Henry II, whose careless nurse dropped him from a window in the Alcázar in 1366, and then threw herself after him in order to avoid the fate she knew would be hers as a penalty for her carelessness; and that of María del Salto, a beautiful Jewess who was accused of adultery and thrown from the precipice of *La Grajera* near by. She called upon the Virgin and alighted unhurt, a fact which was considered as proof of her innocence. She died in 1237.

From the cathedral we went to the Romanesque church of San Estéban which in itself is uninteresting, but is noted for the beautiful open arcades which run around three sides of it. The lofty tower, which dates from the thirteenth century, shows openings that are alternately pointed and round-arched. The whole thing was in such a fine state of decay that the tower had been wound with heavy steel cables to prevent its falling down. This precaution had been taken by the government which had selected it as a National Monument which means that it was directly under government control, so that it might the better be preserved and restored.

The city of Segovia itself is possessed of only thirteen thousand inhabitants, and is relatively small, even for that population. And yet, the crooked little streets give one an extreme feeling of emptiness. Block after block is lined with the bare, bleak walls of deserted convents; here and there one meets a solitary pedestrian. Once we met a bevy of half a dozen bright, laughing señoritas, who seemed

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strangely out of place in the general and all-pervading quietness and desolation. In no other town of Spain did I encounter such an oppressive sense of lack of life.

In this respect Segovia is very different from Toledo, to which in all other respects it may very well be likened, although even in these points of similarity it has distinctive features of its own. Both are very much given to churches and convents, although Segovia is in much the more deserted and ruinous condition of the two, and has many Roman remains as against Toledo's evidences of Moorish supremacy. Both are perched on high, rocky hills and possess royal palaces. At Toledo the deep gorge of the Tagus almost surrounds the rocky knoll on which the city is perched, and the land on the opposite side of the river is about on the same level as the city itself. Segovia saddles the hill which occupies the narrow slip of land between the rivers Eresma and Clamores, which join their waters at the west end of the town. On the south the Clamores runs along the base of the cliff, but on the north, between the cliff and the river there is a small meadow which leaves room for a beautiful, shady promenade, from which one gets a good idea of the 330 feet of precipitous cliff which aided mightily in the defense of the place and which is surmounted by the old city walls with their eighty-three towers. The hill is precipitous on all sides but the east( and even here the ascent is stiff), and rises higher and higher toward the western point, between the two rivers, on which is situated the Alcázar. From the little church of *Vera Cruz*, situated in a valley across the Eresma, a fine view of the Alcázar and the whole city may be obtained, and it is from this point that it has with considerable justice been said to look like "a ship in full sail toward the setting sun."

The drive out to La Granja in the cool of the afternoon was very pleasant. The route is lined on both sides by magnificent trees which almost meet overhead, and the long vista down the straight road is extremely pretty. Segovia lies 3,300 feet above the sea, but to reach La Granja

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one must climb another 605 feet. The snow-clad Guadarrama Mountains hemmed us in on all sides and the view was delightful.

We spent the morning in visiting the gardens of the palace. In 1719 this place was purchased and built by Philip V., the first of the Bourbon dynasty in Spain. He never could forget *La Douce France,* and tried to reproduce in these mountain fastnesses the beautiful gardens of Versailles. In minor details he sometimes surpassed his model, but the general effect seems to me to be not so good. The fountains are much superior to their French prototypes; whereas the palace is wofully inferior to the magnificent pile at Versailles. Upstairs it seems really cozy, homelike, and luxurious, but the dining halls, smoking-rooms and concert-rooms downstairs seem positively shoddy.

The next day at nine o'clock we started off on a walk of six miles to the suppressed Carthusian monastery of *El Paular.* In spite of the fact that we started from La Granja whose altitude is 3,905 feet, we had three mountain ridges to climb over before reaching the apex of the Guadarrama range which, by our path, was the bare and bleak *Puerto de Reventon* which is about 7,000 feet above the sea. And still we were only halfway to *El Paular.* In other words the climb of about 3,000 feet from La Granja was put into a distance of about three miles. The view from the summit is wide and covers most of Old and New Castile. It is, too, not without its beauties, of a bare and rugged type, although not to be compared with the superb view from the *Peña de Aya.*

The side of the mountain we had been climbing was somewhat toward the south. As we climbed higher and higher it grew cool enough to be comfortable, but without having recourse to our wraps, which we had removed on beginning the ascent. When at the top, the sun came out, which was another fortunate circumstance for, on the descent of the other side, we were exposed to the cold north

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wind. On this side, sheltered from the warm southern breezes, we found quantities of snow. Of course the deepest parts were in the hollows where it had drifted and packed. In many of these hollows flowed rapid mountain streams, and we had the unpleasant sensation that if the crust of snow, which always let us sink in at least six inches, should not pack solidly under our feet at that depth, we were likely to be dropped into an icy bath. A little further down the mountain the snow became softer and we frequently went in up to our knees. This state of affairs added very much to our actual physical discomfort because the snow now stuck to our clothes, and our mental discomfort was certainly not diminished by the increased probability of the aforesaid bath.

About a quarter of an hour after leaving the snow we reached the summit of the first of the two mountains between the *Puerto de Reventon* and *El Paular;* and about three-quarters of an hour later reached the summit of the last mountain. Before us lay the beautiful valley of the Lozoya and in its center the old Carthusian monastery of *El Paular*. The whole scene nestles so close to the foot of the mountain that, from the *Puerto de Reventon,* in spite of the greater altitude, the valley is not visible. Another half-hour of rapid walking and we threw ourselves down to rest in the convent.

The Monastery Church of *El Paular* was built in 1433-1440, by Abderrahman, a Moor of Segovia. It still contains some interesting altars and tombs as well as a few good paintings by Palomino and others. The Tabernacle is particularly gorgeous and beautiful. The light was not very good for taking photographs, but as it was impossible to secure them any other way, I risked it and with fair success.

At three o'clock in the afternoon, just an hour and a half after arriving at *El Paular,* we started on the homeward trip. Again we had three mountains to climb to reach the *Puerto de Reventon* and three from there to La

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Granja to go down. We got up the first one without experiencing any great discomfort. The second one cost more work and we had to rest several times. A biting wind was raging and was becoming stronger and colder every minute. The third mountain was still before us. The gale fairly took away our breath, and every few minutes we had to throw ourselves down in the scrub pine (which grew to the height of about a foot and in bushes rather than in trees), to escape its fury and recover our strength. This time we made a detour, skirting the edge of the snow When we finally reached the top we found the wind a perfect hurricane. It stung our faces, bit through our clothes, and thoroughly benumbed us. By the time we had finished the first two mountains we thought our legs would double under us for lack of strength sufficient to resist the impact of the downward step. How we got down the third mountain I do not know. At this point our discomfort was increased by the beginning of rainfall. There was not enough of it to wet us, but the drops of water driven by the fury of the wind lashed our faces until they felt as though they were being cut with a knife. We reached the hotel at seven-thirty, after four hours and a half of walking. In spite of the difficulty of the trip it is one that I consider thoroughly worth while.

The next day we returned to Segovia and went immediately to the Alcázar which is a fine example of an old Castilian castle. As it occupies the high rocky point between the two rivers it needed a moat and drawbridge only on the side away from the point, the other two sides of the triangle being formed by the two rivers and precipitous sides of the promontory. On this, which we may call the land side, is the real façade of the castle and it is flanked by two immense towers. Here Isabella the Catholic was proclaimed Queen of Castile in 1474. The Alcázar was unsuccessfully stormed by the Comuneros in 1520: and it is indeed hard to see how it could ever have been stormed successfully in bygone days before the introduction of

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heavy field artillery. It is in this castle, too, that Gil Blas was confined on the eve of his marriage. Concerning the *Pieza del Cordon* there is an extremely interesting legend to the effect that in this room King Alfonso X, called the Learned, had reached such a point in his studies of astronomy, that he was about to declare that the earth moves round the sun, when a sudden flash of lightning prevented his making such an heretical assertion. In commemoration of the warning Alfonso had the room decorated by carving the rope (*cordon*) of St. Francis around the frieze, where it is still to be seen.

From here we drove along the foot of the wall down into the valley of the Eresma. The first building of interest was the former convent of *Santa Cruz* which has a very rich and beautiful Gothic portal. As we continued our drive along the base of the walls, with the river still below us, we saw on the gentle slope on the other side the suppressed *Monasterio del Parral,* with a few remains of its Gothic cloisters. This Hieronymite convent was famous for its well kept gardens, and they gave rise to the saying: "The gardens of the Parral are an earthly Paradise." A little farther on we descended to the river, passed the Romanesque church of *Vera Cruz,* a twelve-sided building erected by the Templars (their official designation was Knights of the Temple) in 1208, in imitation of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, and drove to the *Santuario de Fuencisla,* nestling up under the towering *Peña de la Grajera.* The church was built and dedicated to the Virgin of Fuencisla in honor of the miraculous escape, or rescue, of the beautiful Jewess María del Salto, of whom we have already spoken.

From here we were driven half way around the city again passing the Mint (*Fábrica de la Moneda*) and the magnificent old Aqueduct, on our way to the railway station to take train for Salamanca.

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# IV. Salamanca

IN Salamanca we went first to the *Plaza Mayor,* which was the scene of the Salamantino bullfight until 1863, and is the best park or square of its kind in the country. The one at San Sebastián is very similar to it. Next we visited the *Casa de las Conchas,* so called because of the scallop shells that are carved all over the exterior walls. The same design is carried out in the fine Gothic window-grilles. Finer ones I have not seen outside of England. The house dates from 1514, and is now the property of the Marques de Valdecarzana. It has a handsome patio, with a deep well of delicious water in its center, and a granite staircase leading to the cloister-like gallery on to which open all the rooms of the house. The vaulting of this staircase is the original, and is an interesting example of the artesonado style, the colors still being very bright and fresh. The balustrade is of beautifully carved granite.

From here we went to the New Cathedral which was planned by the "Catholic Kings" because they considered the Old Cathedral to be "very small, very dark, and very low." It was not begun, however, until 1509; and, owing to several differences of opinion between the chapter and the architects, was not completed until 1733. As a natural result of the long period over which its construction was stretched, it forms, as some one has aptly said, "a record in stone of the lapse of time and the changes of taste." Here one may study the Late Gothic, the Plateresque and Baroque styles, one beside the other, and yet the general effect is not altogether unpleasing. The west of the main façade is adorned with sculpture almost to the point of excess, although one is forced to admit that it is all very beautiful.

In the *relicario,* a priest showed us the treasures, those of chief interest being an ivory Madonna, said to be of the fourteenth century, which is an exquisite piece of work; and the celebrated bronze Crucifix of the Cid,



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Salamanca. The Plaza Mayor.
*Laurent Photograph.*

brought to Salamanca by the Cid's companion-at-arms, Bishop Jerónimo Visquio, and called *El Cristo de las Batallas,* the Christ of Battles.

Through a door in one of the chapels of the New Cathedral we entered the Old Cathedral. This is a magnificent piece of work, in spite of, or rather partially because of, its lack of the usual gaudy decorations. It is an exquisite creation of the transition style in Spain; and with its cold, chaste lines, and lofty arches, which in spite of their massiveness are graceful and actually seem slender, it is very impressive. The walls are about ten feet thick and that is the reason for the name *Fortis Salmantina,* Salamanca the Strong, which is usually applied to this old cathedral. It was founded about 1100 and finished about a hundred years later.

One of the chief glories of this church is its lantern or tower, called *La Torre del Gallo,* because of the cock on

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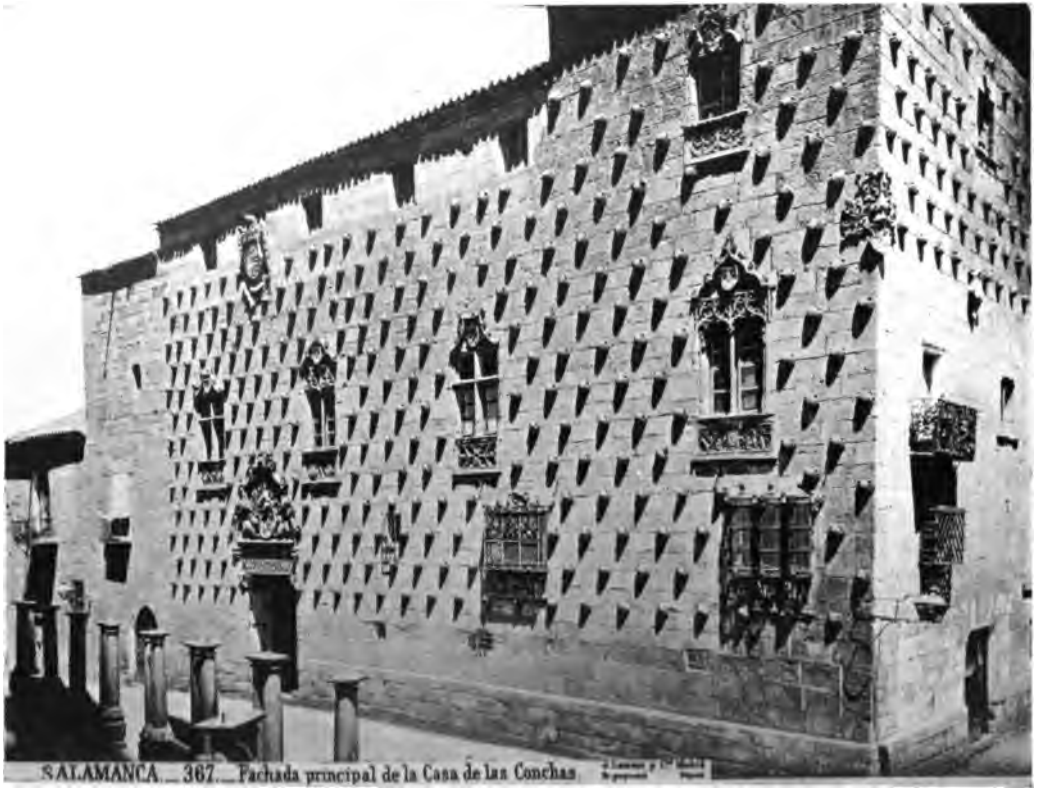


Salamanca. Principal Façade of the Casa de las Conchas, or House of the Shells. *Laurent Photograph.*

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its summit. The best view is to be had from the *Patio Chico,* whence one can see also the three semi-colored apses.

The interior is remarkable for its massive but harmonious proportions which, as I said before, are not spoiled by the usual gaudy excrescent decorations. This does not mean that there are none. On the contrary, there are many, but they are all or nearly all, purely architectural decorations, cut right out of the stone itself.

Salamanca Charro, or Peasant of the Province. *Laurent Photograph.*

From the transept we enter the fine old Cloister (built toward the end of the twelfth century), from which open several chapels, the most interesting one being the *Capilla de Talavera,* so called because it contains the tomb of one of the Talavera family. This chapel has a very unusual parallel arrangement of its groining ribs. It was founded in 1510 for the Mozarabic or Visigothic Ritual, which differs from the Latin or Roman Ritual in thirteen important points, and is celebrated in this chapel six times each year.

From here we went to the University, which is of course the most interesting feature of the whole city. It is precisely to its university that the international reputation of Salamanca is due. Founded by Alfonso IX of Leon, who died in 1230, it quickly became more brilliant than the Castilian University at Valencia, and Pope Alexander IV as early as 1254 ranked it with the great Universities of Bologna, Paris and Oxford. At its period of greatest brilliancy in the sixteenth century, it was attended

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by about seven thousand students. Now there are only four hundred. Of that famous galaxy, Bologna, Salamanca, Paris and Oxford, only the last two are now important, and of them Oxford stands in some need of an infusion of new blood. In the case of Salamanca the decline is peculiarly regrettable, since its characteristic functions were the introduction of Arabic learning into the rest of Europe and the democratic preservation of the liberties of the Middle Ages, whereas Alcalá stood for the new aristocratic, centralizing tendencies which were later to prove the ruination of Spain. One of the most mournful signs of Salamanca's downfall is not so much the difference in the number of students thronging its halls as the fact that whereas formerly they came from all over Europe, they now come from Spain alone.

Exterior of the Lantern of the Old Cathedral of Salamanca. Reproduced from Street's "Gothic Architecture in Spain."

The university was originally housed very modestly, but in 1480 the "Catholic Kings" altered the building beyond recognition and furnished it with an ornate façade which is the most splendid model of the Plateresque style. The building surrounds an attractive patio from which open the lecture rooms. A wide staircase leads to the second floor. The balustrade of the staircase is gothic in design and is decorated with odd reliefs of bullfights as they were in the fifteenth century. On this second floor is located the library which, although containing only eighty thousand volumes, is one of the oldest in Europe, having been founded by Alfonso the Learned in 1254.

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Professorial Chair of Fray Luis de León.

Lecture Room of Fray Luís de León.

Plaza of the University of Salamanca and Statue of Fray Luís de León, as seen from the Portal.

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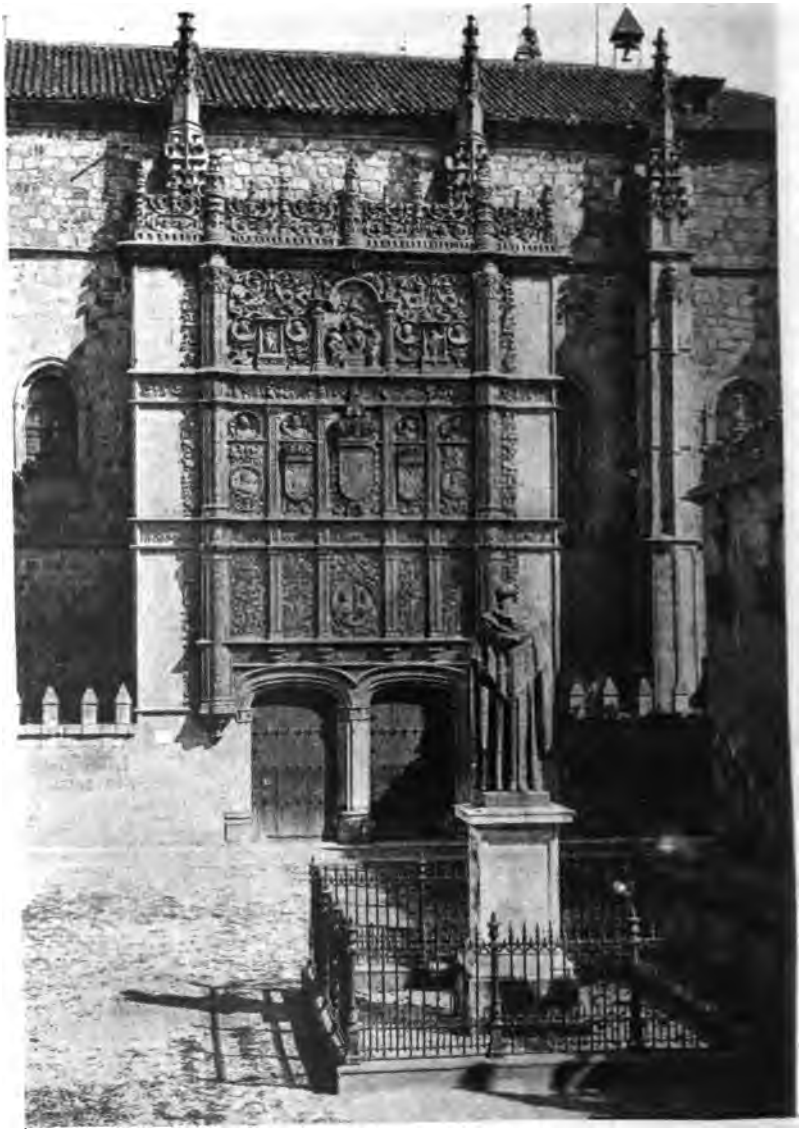

Portal of the University of Salamanca, Statue of Fray Luis de León in Foreground.

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The chief point of interest of this most fascinating institution is the lecture-room of Fray Luís de León. It was in this room that he was lecturing as Professor of Theology, when he was interrupted by the officers of the Inquisition who had come to arrest him for having translated into Spanish the Song of Solomon. This occurred in March, 1572, and he was kept a prisoner by the local authorities for four and a half years, during which time he was baited with all sorts of questions in hope of convicting him of heresy. He put in his time, however, writing his most celebrated treatise, which is the greatest of Spanish mystic books "The Names of Christ," in which he tries to interpret the meaning of such names as 'Prince of Peace,' 'Mount,' 'Shepherd,' etc., when applied to Christ. In December of 1576 he was acquitted, and returned to the Chair which Salamanca had kept vacant for him. The opening words of his first lecture are sufficient evidence of the supreme serenity of his mind and soul: *Dicebamus heri*, "We were saying yesterday." Another explanation of these words is that the Inquisition when it acquitted him, ordered him to make no reference to the time he was in prison; and he took this means of suppressing the whole period. This man, the chief glory of Salamanca, had to wait for a liberal government in 1869 before he could have a fitting monument erected to him. In that year an imposing bronze statue of the poet was cast and set up in the peaceful little *Plazuela de la Universidad*, facing the main façade of his beloved university.

The old lecture-room and professorial chair have been maintained as they were in his time. I do not mean to give the impression that any care has been taken of the room to preserve it thus. On the contrary: it is dusty and dirty, and owes its preservation to the fact that, as it is quite dark none of the professors has cared to use it, and consequently it has not been thought necessary to renovate it. It is now only used for indignation meetings on the part of the students. The benches are rough logs, squared with an

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adze, and set on posts at the proper height. The desks are other logs treated in the same fashion, and set on posts at their proper height. As no photographs of this room could be bought I took two myself, in spite of the fact that the light was very poor making necessary time exposures, and that the foundation for the camera when taking the picture of the chair was unsteady. This latter fact accounts for the double lines in the photograph.

From the university we made our way to the Convent of San Estéban, in whose *Salon de Profundis* Columbus, in 1486, tried to persuade the Salmantino scholars of the scientific accuracy and feasibility of his scheme. The church and cloisters are for many reasons interesting, and we spent here an extremely enjoyable morning.

From this convent we proceeded to the *Torre del Clavero,* which was built in 1480 by Francisco de Sotomayor, who was a *Clavero* (Keybearer) of the Order of Alcántara. The building is still owned by the family of Sotomayor.

The Order of Alcántara is one of the four great Orders of Spain, viz: Calatrava, Santiago, Alcántara and Montesa. Calatrava was founded in 1158 in the town of that name. Santiago was founded in 1175 for the purpose of protecting from the Moors the pious pilgrims who flocked to the shrine of Saint James at Santiago de Compostela in Galicia, and took its name from that fact. In the year 1212 a company of Knights of the Order of Calatrava was stationed to defend the town of Alcántara in Estremadura against the Moors. The defense was long, stubborn, and severe, but at length successful, and the company of knights decided to found a separate order in honor of the event, being thus an offshoot of the oldest order, Calatrava. The order of Montesa was founded in the castle of Montesa, in the province of Valencia in 1317, to succeed the Knights of the Temple, or Templars, as they are usually called. It has always remained subject to the Order of Calatrava and hence has never had an entirely separate individuality as have the other three.

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We next visited the *Casa de la Salina* which was built by the Fonseca family in 1516, but is now the palace of the Provincial Diet. Both the exterior and the patio are extremely interesting. Not far from here is the attractive *Casa de las Muertes,* which was built about the beginning of the sixteenth century. I was unable to discover to what circumstance it owes its name. A little farther on is a massive fortress-like building called the *Palacio de Monterey.* Its façade is pierced by but few windows and its ends are surmounted by two high towers which only add to its warlike appearance. These towers are connected along the roof by a finely carved stone balustrade which, as the roof serves also as a roof-garden, is not merely an ornament.

Salamanca has one general beauty that I have up to this time left unmentioned. All the buildings are constructed of the same material, a light-colored sandstone which, in the passage of the centuries, has acquired a wonderful golden-brown hue.

After a brief visit to the *Colegio de Santiago Apóstol* which is now occupied by the *Colegio de Nobles Irlandeses* or College of Noble Irishmen, we wandered through the pleasure grounds of the *Plasa de San Francisco,* across the suburbs to the river Tórmes, where all the washerwomen of the town were kneeling in their little boxes at the edge of the water and doing the city's washing. We walked upstream to the Roman bridge which crosses the river, starting from Salamanca at the suburb of Santiago. The fifteen arches next to the city belong to the Roman period and excel the other twelve arches, not only in antiquity, but also in general architectural effect.

Although there are many other points of interest in Salamanca, at least one more building should be visited, no matter how short one's stay. I refer to the Conventual church of the *Agustinas.* Architecturally it is without interest, but it contains two paintings by Ribera which are gems, especially the one over the high altar representing

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the Conception. The Ribera paintings that are to be found in the German galleries and in London are usually studies in drab and in the emaciated. This one, however, gives us a very different phase of the artist's ability. The figure of the Virgin, executed with considerable charm, is draped in a superbly painted mantle. Her face, radiant with mother-love, is turned upward toward a group of happy angels which surrounds her. The picture is resplendent with rich coloring but still perfectly harmonized. The other painting is in the south transept, and shows us the Virgin and Child, together with two saints. While deservedly less celebrated than its companion, it is a worthy example of the master who painted it.

The best description I have ever read of the general impression of Salamanca is that given by Gustave Reynier in his *Vie Universitaire dans L'Ancienne Espagne,* and with a translation thereof we shall close our visit to Salamanca:

"One would like to find rare, exotic words with which to give expression to the beauty of Salamanca. In the naked plain which is surrounded by a circle of faintly-outlined hills, crowned with towers and domes and steeples she rises like a sovereign city. And, tinted with fine colors, which go from pale rose to old gold, luminous under this clear sky and in this light air she flourishes like a flower.

"Nowhere, perhaps, could one find shut in within so small a space, so many exquisite works, so many sumptuous buildings. The magnificence of the new cathedral and the robust grace of the old, the harmonious lines of the churches, of the old colleges; the palaces charged with illustrious coat-of-arms where one sees glistening the sun of the Solis, the stars of the Fonsecas the five lilies of the Maldonados; so many ancient houses whose open portals permit one to catch glimpses of courts paved in marble, elegant porticoes, fine colonnades, the worn curbs of old wells, all that forms a really unique *ensemble* where the poetry of a distant past is mingled with the most delicate impressions of art.

"When one wanders in these streets, which are frequently silent, one is arrested at almost every step: a grille in wrought iron, a bouquet of pinks sculptured over a door, a medallion encased in a wall, a Virgin or a saint in a niche, a frieze where fabulous animals pursue each other, a balcony whence garlands are falling, a thousand charming details attract and fascinate. Certain facades are pure marvels, master works of that minute and complicated art which is called Plateresque. In it, stones are chiseled like jewels, or cut out like lace. They are of a grain so fine and so compact that time has respected their most delicate arabesques; they are furthermore, these stones of Salamanca, yellow as gold, or pink as peach blossoms, and always of a color so warm that even in the

grayest mornings of winter one would still believe them to be lighted up by the sun. The 'Palace of the Montereys,' the 'House of the Deaths,' the 'House of the Shells,' the 'Convent of the Holy Spirit,' what a number of delightful monuments from which one cannot remove one's glance, and of which one would like to carry away in his eyes the clear and laughing image! But what leaves, after all, the strongest and most complete impression, is certainly the Plaza of the University.

"When one stops at the foot of the statue of Fray Luis, the master so illustrious and so good, one has, at his right, the ancient hospital of the students, the ravishing portal of the Minor Schools, their elegant cloister and their little garden; at the left, the old houses which the University rented to its librarians; in front the incomparable facade of the University itself, the eagles, the broad coat-of-arms, the profiles of the 'Catholic Kings,' the statues of Force and Beauty; against the sky are outlined the bell-tower and the two clock-towers of the Chapel of San Jerónimo. Nothing has changed there during three centuries: the little round stones upon which one walks are the same that were trodden by so many grave doctors, so many adolescents intoxicated with knowledge, ambition and youth; the walls, here as everywhere throughout the city, permit one to see still just as sharp drawn and distinct as on the first day, the famous *vitores*, those inscriptions in red letters which relate the scholastic triumphs of former times. In this charming decoration, everything still bears the imprint of the university life of other ages, everything evokes its familiar scenes and its brilliant recollections."

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# V. New Castile

FROM Salamanca, which is the only city we visit in the ancient Kingdom of Leon, we take train for Madrid, the capital of New Castile as well as of Spain, which will serve as headquarters from which to make the various excursions that will be necessary while we remain within the confines of this new kingdom.

Madrid itself is the parvenu among the great capitals of Europe, for it did not attain its importance until the reign of Philip II, in the last half of the sixteenth century. At that time its climate was said to be very good, and contemporary writers speak of it as particularly healthful because of its charming situation and extensive woods, which harbored all kinds of game. But as we said in a previous chapter, the Castilian peasant is averse to trees and consequently the woods were razed. At present the climate is one of the worst in the country. When the winds blow from the south, no matter what the season of the year, the temperature is uncomfortably warm, and in summer of course becomes unbearable. On the other hand, when the breezes blow from the north, across the snow-capped peaks of the Guadarrama Mountains, even in summer time, one is likely to catch cold. Consequently the inhabitants of Madrid have a proverb which says: "Until the fortieth of May don't take off your overcoat." Furthermore, aside altogether from the direction that the wind may be coming from, in winter time there is frequently a difference of forty degrees between the sunny and the shady sides of the same street. As Madrid lies on the top of a plateau rising about six hundred feet above the vast table-land that occupies the whole center of the country, attaining thus a height of 2,100 feet above the sea, the air is somewhat rarified; with the fluctuations in temperature the city has developed an additional proverb to the effect that: "The air of Madrid is so subtle that it will kill a man and not blow out a candle." Even as recently as the middle of the eighteenth century a Spanish author could say that Madrid


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was the dirtiest capital in all Europe. Such cannot be said for it now. For some years past improvements have been going on in accordance with a comprehensive scheme for beautifying the whole city. Squares and parks have been laid out; the narrow, crooked streets have been straightened and broadened; and many of the old ramshackle buildings have been torn down. The result is that today Madrid justly takes her rank as one of the finest capitals in Europe. By the circumstances of her history, however, she cannot be expected to possess many monuments of antiquity, so that our interest here will be different from what it has been in the other cities we have visited.

The *Puerta del Sol* is the center of all the life of the city, and it is said that every good Madrileño goes there at least once a day. It is a large open Plaza whence radiate ten streets which form the great arteries of the whole city. This Plaza and the *Prado* at the other end of the *Carrera de San Jerónimo* were celebrated in the seventeenth century as meeting places for duellists. The *Prado* likewise served as a fashionable promenade until it was eclipsed by the broad *Paseo de Recoletos* and its continuation the *Paseo de la Castellana.* As we go out the *Carrera de San Jerónimo* from the *Puerta del Sol* we pass the Palace of the Congress and the square and statue of Cervantes. Just beyond the *Prado* lies the *Plaza de la Lealtad* and in it is the monument commemorating the Second of May, when two artillery officers raised a revolt against the French who, in 1808, tried to carry off the Spanish princes. Near at hand is the Exchange, the Spanish Royal Academy of the Language, and the great Prado Museum.

This is the Spanish Louvre and a worthy companion it is to the French collection. It contains not only a picture gallery, but also a collection of sculptures and drawings. The paintings, however, form by all odds the most important part of the collection, and among these the principal ones naturally enough belong to the Spanish school. There are about sixty genuine works of Velázquez, many of them the

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best that he ever produced. Of Murillo there are about as many, but unfortunately none of them is a masterpiece. There are many works, too, belonging to the early Italian School, and especially to the Venetian, Titian, for example, being represented by considerably over thirty. As we said in the opening chapter, the Flemish School can easily be studied in this Museum, for it possesses more than sixty genuine paintings by Rubens, to say nothing of the other artists of this school. Studies may also be made in the later Spanish school and four rooms are given up to the work of Goya. The following list may serve as a hint of what is in store for the visitor. Of Velázquez, *Las Meninas*, The Surrender of Breda, The Drunkards and The Weavers; of Raphael, The Holy Family, and Bearing the Cross; of Titian, The Worship of the Goddess of Fertility; of Rubens, The Brazen Serpent and The Judgment of Paris; of Goya the sketches as models for tapestries; and the Popular Festival on the *Pradera de San Isidro*, The Execution of Spanish Citizens, and The Combat with the French Mamalukes, the last two dealing with the uprising against the French in May, 1808.

Beyond the *Museo del Prado* lies the *Buen Retiro*, or Park of Madrid, the Central Park of the Spanish capital, although not located in the center of the city. From the *Buen Retiro* we pass through the *Plaza de la Independencia* and the *Puerta de Alcalá* and later reach the Palace of the National Library, and the National Museums. This building contains the National Library with over a million volumes and a wealth of manuscripts, the National archives, with about two hundred thousand original documents, the Museum of Natural History with a fine collection due to the early discoverers in the Americas, the National Archaeological Museum, one of the most interesting parts of which is that devoted to national costumes, and the Museum of Modern Art. In this last the chief interest centers in such works as Pradilla's Joanna the Mad at the Coffin of her Husband, Philip the Beautiful; Gisbert's Execution of

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The Lances, or the Surrender of Breda. Painting by Velázquez. In the Museo del Prado, Madrid.

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Francis of Assis at the Time of His Marriage to Isabel II. Painting by Madrazo.

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Isabel II at the Time of Her Marriage. Painting by Madrazo.

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The Duchess of Alba. Painting by Goya. In the Museum of the Hispanic Society of America.

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General Torrijos and his Companions at Málaga in 1831; and Casado's The Bell of Huesca. King Ramiro II of Aragon had a great deal of trouble with some of his nobles. One of his followers, the Abbot of San Ponce de Tomeras, counseled him to show these rebellious subjects "a bell which could be heard throughout the country." The king accordingly slaughtered sixteen of the leaders and arranged the heads in a circle on the floor of a large vaulted room in the lower part of the University of Huesca. Above this circle he fastened one of the heads on a hook attached to a rope hanging from the ceiling, the whole acting as a clapper to the aforesaid bell. Then he invited the remaining nobles to come down and look at it. This is the scene depicted by the artist.

From the Museum we retrace our steps to the *Plaza de Madrid* and the *Calle de Alcalá.* On the left is the Bank of Spain; on the right the Ministry of War, a building which was presented by the nation to the notorious Godoy, called The Prince of the Peace. Further down the street we come to the Royal Academy of Fine Arts established in 1752 as the *Academia de Nobles Artes de San Fernando* for the culture of painting, sculpture, architecture, and music. Although the *Prado,* in spite of its many paintings by Murillo has none of his masterpieces, the Academy of Fine Arts can boast of the possession of three of them: The Dream of the Roman Knight that led to the foundation of Santa Maria Maggiore at Rome, the Interpretation of the Dream, and Saint Elizabeth of Hungary Healing the Sick. There is also a Madrazo portrait of Queen Isabella II at the time of her marriage to Francis of Assis. Three years ago the companion portrait of Francis of Assis was discovered in the cellar of the Prado. The Academy possesses also two of Goya's most celebrated paintings. Both are portraits of a Maja reposing on a divan. The one is nude, the other is draped.

Passing through the *Puerta del Sol* and the *Calle del Arenal* we come to the *Teatro Real,* or Royal Opera House,

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which lies between the *Plaza de Isabel II* and the *Plaza de Oriente*. Across the latter Plaza lies the Royal Palace, which is one of the finest in all Europe. To the right are the royal stables, and to the left the royal armory. Neither can be equaled anywhere else in Europe. In the armory the chief romantic interest centers in the two celebrated swords of the Cid: Colada and Tizon. Across the street from the royal stables are the Navy Department and Naval Museum, as well as the Senate. The latter building, in itself of little interest, contains a painting of the Battle of Lepanto by Novicio, and the still more famous painting of The Surrender of Granada by Pradilla.

Not far from the Senate lies the *Universidad Central* which, since 1836, has replaced the celebrated University of Alcalá, founded in 1508 by Cardinal Cisneros. Today it counts six thousand six hundred students.

In the older city the chief point of interest is the *Plaza Mayor*, laid out with fountains and pleasure grounds. It dates back to the beginning of the seventeenth century and served for all kinds of public ceremonies, chief among which were tournaments, bull fights, executions and *autos da fe*. In 1680 one of these took place in the presence of Charles II and his Queen and the court. On this occasion out of eighty accused twenty-one were burned alive, the affair lasting from seven o'clock in the morning until after midnight.

Northwest from Madrid lies another royal palace, at the Escorial. At the Battle of Saint Quentin, which was fought on Saint Laurence's Day, August 10, 1557, the Spanish artillery destroyed a church dedicated to Saint Laurence. In compensation therefor Philip II promised to build a monastery church in honor of the saint. As Saint Laurence had been burned alive on a gridiron it occurred to Philip that it would be well to symbolize that fact by building his Monastery-Church-Palace in the form of a gridiron, the royal apartments serving as the handle.

While I admit all that is said in favor of this great

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monument of Philip II, and although I spent a whole morning in trying to get a general impression of the interior of the conventual church, there is nevertheless an indefinable something about it which displeases me: the magnificent pile does not appeal to me. In the early afternoon I visited the exquisite *Panteon de los Reyes,* where are buried most of the kings of Spain and those of their consorts who bore successors to the throne. There are but three niches still unoccupied, and they are naturally reserved for the Queen Mother Cristina, and King Alfonso and Queen Victoria.

Later in the afternoon we took a walk to the so-called *Silla del Rey.* This consists of three seats rough hewn out of a rock on an eminence about two miles from the Escorial, and from which Philip II is said to have watched the progress of the work on the building itself. The walk took us through a pretty, shady wood, along babbling brooks, among green pastures, and gave us many a charming view. The return home in the cool of the early evening, just as the sun was setting, was quite as charming as the walk out had been. The next morning was spent in seeing in detail the church and the palace, with special attention to the rooms just off the high altar, in which Philip II lived during the last few weeks before he died of the same repulsive disease that killed Herod. In the afternoon we visited the High Choir, Sacristy, Chapter Rooms, and Cloisters, all of them parts of the church and monastery. The delightful walk through the Royal Gardens to the charming little *Casita del Príncipe* must not be neglected. In visiting this little gem and loafing about the gardens one can spend two or three hours most pleasantly. One should not leave the Escorial without a visit to the library of the monastery, which contains one of the richest collections of manuscripts in all Spain.

A little over twenty miles northeast of Madrid is the small town of Alcalá de Henares which, in spite of having less than fifteen thousand inhabitants is of considerable historical interest. It was the seat of a great university which,

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from 1508, ranked almost with Salamanca, and in the late sixteenth century, when both were at their highest, surpassed it in mere numbers, since it mustered twelve thousand students to the latter's seven thousand. Here naturally the *Estudiantina* or undergraduate societies flourished in all their glory. It was at this university that the great Complutensian polyglot Bible was made. The university was transferred to Madrid in 1836 and the old university buildings were turned into a school which now teaches less than three hundred boys. Two other facts that make Alcalá interesting are, that it was the birthplace of Cervantes, and also of Catharine of Aragon, the first wife of Henry VIII of England.

The first place visited was the former archiepiscopal palace, which is now used as a receptacle for part of the Spanish archives from Simancas, Toledo and other places. The exterior is beautiful and the interior shows spacious courts, splendid staircases and exquisite artesonado ceilings. The finest of the latter are those that were left the natural wood. As they are pine, and are very old, they have turned almost as black as oak. The reception room is a gorgeous bit of Moorish workmanship, in the full glory of all its colors. The floor alone is in decay.

The church of *Santa María* is uninteresting except for the fact that Cervantes was baptized in it on October the ninth, 1547. The house in which he was born, and which formerly bore a plate, with an engraving to that effect, in its fine old portal had been razed to the ground a year or two previous to the summer of 1901, and a ramshackle theater had taken its place.

It was in Alcalá that we got our first glimpse of primitive threshing. We had seen it as we entered the town and saw it again as we left, after our visit to the university. Large fields are well paved with cobblestones. Over these the grain is strewn; and over the grain huge rollers and drags are driven back and forth. Then with pitchforks the men begin to toss the straw, starting on the windward side,

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Archiepiscopal Palace. Reception Hall.

Archiepiscopal Palace. Façade

**University Paraninfo.**

**University Façade.**

**Alcalá de Henares.**

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Façade of the Palace of the Duque del Infantado, at Guadalajara.

Portal of the Palace of the Duque del Infantado.

El Escorial La Silla del Rey.

Alcalá. Threshing-Floor.

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Gorge of the Henares River at Guadalajara.

Road looking toward the Station of Guadalajara.

Guadalajara Peasants.

*Laurent Photograph.*

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San Juan de los Reyes. Cloister Gallery.

San Juan de los Reyes. Cloister Patio.

La Puerta del Sol.

La Puerta Visagra Antigua.

Views of Toledo.

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**Toledo Peasant Types.**

*Laurent Photographs.*

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Toledo. The Cathedral.

*Laurent Photograph.*

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Toledo. Interior of Santa María la Blanca.
*Laurent Photograph.*

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General View of Toledo. Reproduced from "Views of Spain," Published by Hauser Y Menet, Madrid.

El Escorial. General View of the Palace and Monastery. *Laurent Photograph.*

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shaking it well as they go, so that the grain falls out on the stones, and gradually working the straw across the field in front of them until they reach the other side. Then the grain is swept together into piles and sifted through a hand sieve.

The most important excursion to make from Madrid is the one to Toledo. After leaving the station we climbed the steep hill to the bridge across the jagged gulch of the Tagus, which runs about the town for two-thirds of its circumference. The bridge, which is called the *Puente de Alcántara,* commands a striking view of the Tagus and of the city, which towers above one and culminates in the colossal Alcázar, or Palace of the King.

Burro in Madrid Street.

After feasting our eyes on the scene spread out before us, we went through the gate, climbed the old Moorish fortification walls, passed the house in which Cervantes lived and which is now used as a stable, and entered the *Plaza de Zocodover,* the prettiest plaza in Toledo and made famous by Cervantes in his *Novelas Exemplares.* It is in Toledo that Lope de Vega lived for several years and wrote many of his plays, the scenes of some of which, such as *Por la Puente, Juana,* and *La Vida y Muerte del Rey Bamba,* are laid here.

Our first visit was to the Alcázar, which occupies the highest point of the city and is, so to speak, its Acropolis. The history of the palace has been extremely varied. At one time the Cid resided here with the title of *Alcaide,* "Keeper of the Castle." The view from the terrace in front of the *Alcázar* is superb, and one easily realizes that the early Romans had more than strategic reasons for set-

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The Alcázar, from across the Tagus. Toledo

Bird's-eye-view from the Top of the Alcázar. Toledo.

Toledo. Plaza de Zocodover.
*Laurent Photograph.*

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ting here their *Castellum*. The terrace faces toward the north. From it we entered the magnificent patio surrounded by double arcades of Corinthian columns. On the opposite side of the court is an elaborate marble staircase (width about forty feet), which branches out from the landing and rises to the next floor by sections to the right and left. These smaller sections are half the width of the main stairway, and the steps are each made of a single slab of marble. Up these we went in spite of their ruined condition, and from the second floor had a superb bird's-eye-view of the whole city spread out before and below us to the south.

CERVANTES

Our attention was next turned to the cathedral. An old saying groups the chief cathedrals of Spain together as *Toledo la rica, Salamanca la fuerte, Leon la bella, Oviedo la sacra, e Sevilla la grande.* The splendid approach so often found to large European cathedrals is sadly lacking here. No adequate conception of the exterior of the edifice can be obtained, as so many smaller buildings have been erected close to it.

Miss Hannah Lynch in her recent book on Toledo has given a very good impressionistic description of this cathedral, and from it I quote the following passage:

"The monument which dominates Toledo, which is not only the most prominent feature in a town whose every feature is so marked and significant, so unlike all the traveled eye is most familiar with, but is the center of its changes and vicissitudes, of its tri-

umphs and humiliations, is the Cathedral. Who is to seize and express, with any adequacy or even coherence, the first swift and stupefying impression of this superb edifice? There are many things in this world more beautiful—no one, for instance, would dream of speaking of it in the same breath as the Parthenon—but nothing more sumptuous; nothing in all the treasure of Spain to match its magnificence. It is simpler and more majestic than that of Burgos, and before heeding the instinct of examination or noting its mass of detail, the first imperious command is to yield in charmed surrender to its spirit. We are silenced and held by the general effect long before we come to admire the exquisite sculpture of Berruguete and of Philip of Burgundy, and the splendors of chapels and treasury. And should time be short for detailed inspection, it is this general effect of immense naves, of a forest of columns and of jewelled windows that we carry away, feeling too small amidst such greatness of form and incomparable loveliness of lights for the mere expression of admiration. At sunset, should you have the fortune to be alone among its pillars and stained glass windows, you will find nothing on earth to compare with the mysterious eloquence of its silence; you will feel it a place not for prayer but for a salutary conception of man's insignificance.

"Castilian genius has nowhere imprinted a haughtier effigy of its invincible pride and fanaticism, insusceptible to the humiliations of decay and defeat, impervious to the encroachments of progress and enlightenment. It is the vast monumental note of Spanish character and Spanish history. It tells the eternal tale of ecclesiastical domination and triumph, and is the fitting home of portraits of warlike cardinals and armoured bishops, of princes of the Church who wore the purple and ruled with the sword. It is a superb and majestic harmony of marvelous stone work and painted glass."

Toledo steel is world-renowned, and no one should fail to visit the salesroom of the factory where the famous blades are made. I am now prepared to believe any story about those blades. They are beautiful in their workmanship and etching and wonderful in their temper. A sword for service can be bent at an angle of more than ninety degrees, and a long sword can be bent almost point to hilt. Dress swords can be curled up like a watch spring and put inside of a case. They have satin lined cases with creases in them in which they curl the blade up to a perfect figure six for presentation as gifts. I am telling you only what I have seen them do: take a blade down from a rack, curl it up in the case, take it out afterwards and have it spring back into its original straight position without the suspicion of a bend. Of course the handsomest blades have the etching embellished with that peculiar Toledo work which con-

sists of hammering gold thread into the steel. Their poniards are made of such finely tempered steel that you can drive the point through a cent without leaving the slightest sign on the point or blade. I saw them do it with a blade picked up at random, and then I picked out a different poniard and had it driven through a cent from my pocket. As the blade was in just as good condition afterward as before, I bought it.

Just below the bridge, on the city side of the Tagus, is the so-called *Baño de la Cava* where, according to the legend, Florinda, surnamed *La Cava,* the daughter of Count Julian, was bathing when Roderick saw her charms from the Alcázar. The subsequent story is a very sad one, for the outraged father summoned the Moors to help him avenge his wrong, and Roderick was slain in 711. The legend is very beautifully treated in Southey's poem "Roderick, the Last of the Goths."

From the *Puente de San Martín* we walked almost around the city, along the heights on the opposite bank of the Tagus. Not all of the time were we on the heights, however, for occasionally the road led down into deep valleys from which nothing could be seen. Although the ground was rugged and almost devoid of trees, we enjoyed the walk very much, and many were the fine glimpses and views that he had of the city and the romantic gorge. After re-entering the city by the bridge of Alcantara we walked around its edge on the walls built by King Bamba in 673, until we had reached the *Puerta del Sol,* a structure in the Mudéjar style, with horseshoe arches and two towers probably built in 1100. Thence we proceeded to the *Puerta Visagra Antigua,* of Moorish workmanship, erected about 1126, and the finest gateway in the outer wall.

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# VI. Andalucia

FROM Toledo we take a train in the evening for a disagreeable all-night ride to the Land of the Orange Blossom. After a fifteen-hour trip, with three changes, all of which were made on time (the Spanish railroad system is very much maligned by people who say that the trains are never on time), we reach Córdoba. Even if we had made the trip by daylight there would have been but little to see except the bare sun-baked plains of La Mancha, made famous by Cervantes' immortal hero.

Córdoba, besides being the birthplace of Seneca and Lucan, as mentioned in our first chapter, can also boast that it possessed Averroes, the famous translator and philosopher, and that it was the baptismal place of the *Gran Capitan,* Gonsalvo de Córdoba, the conquerer of Naples in 1496. Furthermore, under the Arabs and especially under the dynasty of the Omayyades from 756 to 1031, it became one of the wealthiest and most cultured cities of Europe, rising to the dignity of capital of the Caliphate of Córdoba and metropolis of all Moorish Spain. It was during this period that the city was resorted to by students of Arabic learning from all over the world. After its separation as a dependency of the Caliphate of Damascus it rose to a point of such importance in Mohammedanism that its mosque, known as the Ceca, rivaled Mecca, and became known, in fact, as the Western Mecca. The place is now but a shadow of its former self, in spite of the fact that our guide assured us with the utmost seriousness that the city is now a great railroad center "being crossed by four railroad lines (there are really but two, and they pass through) with a daily departure and arrival of eighty trains." Córdoba has been noted for its silver filigree work and its fine leather ever since the days of the Moors. Our old English word for shoemaker "cordwainer" is derived from the adjective "Cordovan." The silver filigree work can still be obtained there, but Cordovan leather has passed over to Africa.



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Our first visit was naturally to the famous *Mezquita* or Mosque, now called the Cathedral. This creation is a perfect gem. Such a "forest of columns" we had never seen anywhere else. The Christians spoiled it when they built their immense chapel in the center of it. Fortunately the place is so enormous that from many points the Christian botch is not visible. Hence I called it a perfect gem in spite of the fact that it has been so spoiled. In 1526 Charles V, who had himself given the necessary authority for the change, visited the cathedral and remarked to the Chapter: "You have built what you or others might have built anywhere, but you have destroyed something that was unique in the world." No one knows how many columns were destroyed to make room for the chapel, but there still remain more than eight hundred and fifty, no two of them being of the same material, nor adorned with the same capital. The interior consists of nineteen aisles running from front to altar (all of equal width except the one directly in front of the Mihrab, and the two which immediately flank it one on each side), and thirty-five aisles running across from side to side.

Many of the horseshoe arches, and much of the mosaic work and tracery had been walled up or plastered over. The fine, heavily carved larchwood ceiling, which was once the crowning glory of the place, had been nearly all taken down. The original rich mosaic floor had been covered with a white marble floor ten or twelve inches above the old one, which we were allowed to see by removing a slab from the foot of one of the pillars. Our guide calmly told us that all this ruin had been done by the Arabs themselves in order to hide from the Christians the glories of the mosque, and that they did it when they saw they could no longer hold the city against the Christians. You may judge for yourselves whether or not it was likely that the Moors, during so bitter a siege as was that of Córdoba, had even the time or material (to say nothing of the thought) to wall up two or three hundred horseshoe arches,

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plaster up several thousand feet of azulejos and tracery, and lay a new marble floor over 161,500 square feet of ground.

The great *Patio de los Naranjos* of this cathedral has wide gates on its north, west, and east sides. Here, too, are fountains for the ablutions, playing under the palms and orange trees. It is an ideal place for quiet, restful meditation.

From the cathedral we went to the Roman-Moorish bridge which is really a Moorish bridge standing on Roman foundations. It crosses the Guadalquivir river on sixteen arches and is seven hundred and thirty feet long. The bridge itself is worth seeing and from it we get a good general view of the mosque. A short distance from the bridge and the cathedral is the Museum, facing upon the *Plaza del Potro* in the center of which there stands a fountain with the figure of a colt. This Plaza has been celebrated by Cervantes as one of the "tough" centers of Spain.

The next day, a pleasant four-hour trip down the valley of the Guadalquivir brings us to Sevilla. One should plan to be in Sevilla during Holy Week and during the Feria, the latter of which is from April 18th to the 20th. We arrived on Good Friday and went to the cathedral to here the *Miserere*. The service was very impressive and we were carried away with the grandeur of the music, now swelling in majestic tones, now dying away in a plaintive wail in the darkest recesses and dimly lighted aisles, of the grand old cathedral. I say grand old cathedral advisedly, for you will remember that the old proverb calls this *Sevilla la grande*. The wonderfully sweet-toned organ is celebrated all over Europe. In 1401 the chapter determined to build a new cathedral "on so magnificent a scale that coming ages will proclaim us mad to have undertaken it." It was begun in 1402 and practically finished in the incredibly short space of one hundred and four years, and the desire of the chapter has been amply ful-

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filled. It is useless to attempt to describe it, and impossible to take it all in appreciatively in a single visit. One should return to it again and again—first trying to get a general impression of the whole; at other times examining in detail this or that chapel, and then at last trying to correlate all these separate impressions. Among so many marvels that fairly daze one, particular attention should be paid, perhaps, to the *Capilla Mayor,* the *Capilla Real,* the *Sacristía de los Cálices,* the Old and New Chapter Halls, and the *Capilla del Bautisterio,* which contains one of Murillo's most exquisite masterpieces, Saint Anthony of Padua's Vision of the Holy Child. Aside from its wonderfully fine coloring and its general worth as a masterpiece, the painting is of interest to Americans from the fact that the figure of the saint was, in November, 1874, cut out of the canvas and discovered in New York in the following February. No one has yet satisfactorily explained how this piece of vandalism could have been accomplished.

In the *Capilla Real* among other things of interest is a painting by Murillo little known, but deserving of a better fate: a beautiful and expressive *Mater Dolorosa.* There is also a fine Crucifixion by Van Dyck.

Beside the cathedral, and within the walls of its sacristy and the Colombine library, which is under its jurisdiction, lies the *Patio de los Naranjos.* The description of such a garden is impossible. There is nothing particularly striking about it. It is large, and entirely hemmed in by the cathedral and its dependencies and by a series of chapels on the street side; and over the whole, in the corner between the cathedral and the Colombine library, rises the majestic *Giralda;* but all that does not explain one's sensation as one stands there in the shadow of the orange trees, whose all-pervading perfume intoxicates the senses. Nor should one fail to examine, in all its exquisite detail, the oldest and most graceful building in the whole city, and its most conspicuous landmark. I mean the old Moor-

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ish prayer tower which I mentioned a moment ago: the *Giralda.*

During Holy Week the Cofradías, or religious brotherhoods, are very much in evidence. Sevilla is the chief center of these religious organizations, and there are said to be no less than forty-five of them there. Usually not over twenty of them parade in any given year, because of the enormous expense attaching thereto. Saturday afternoon we spent most of our time in the *Plaza de la Constitucion.* Evening came on and the procession of cofradias continued to pass slowly and majestically before us, bearing with them their floats of individual figures or groups of Christ, the Virgin, the Holy Family, or special saints. Some of the figures and faces of Christ and the Virgin are really fine pieces of sculptural art. Most of them are exquisitely dressed in costly brocades and satins, with a profusion of the finest laces and a wealth of precious stones.

The next day we visited the Royal Palace, the *Alcázar.* Next to the Alhambra this is the most important royal palace perpetuating the art of the Moors. From the palace we go to the *Casa Lonja.* Architecturally the building is well worth visiting, but its chief interest lies in its collection of manuscripts, which is absolutely unique. They are the reports of Spain's representatives in the New World, and the only duplicates which can be found anywhere for any of them are the result of the rare cases when reports were made in duplicate.

On Saturday, April 13, the *Cigarreras,* or cigarette girls, from the National tobacco factory, had their annual Kermiss. It was a very interesting affair, the girls appearing in all their finery and performing some of the characteristically Spanish dances. In the evening we went to the *Paseo de Cristina* and the little triangular park through which it passes. Aloft the Paseo was a perfect bower of lanterns, arranged in long rows showing the colors of the Spanish flag. The trees were also hung with a profusion of lanterns; and the broad

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Sevilla. Torre de Oro.
*Puig Photograph.*

Sevilla. Alameda de Hércules.
*Puig Photograph.*

Córdoba. Cathedral: Patio de los Naranjos.

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Sevilla. Cathedral Tower, called La Giralda.
*Laurent Photograph.*

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**Vision of Saint Anthony of Padua. Painting by Murillo, in the Cathedral at Sevilla.**

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Private Patio.

Parque Maria Luisa.

Parque María Luisa.

Patio of the Casa de Pilatos.

**Views of Sevilla.**

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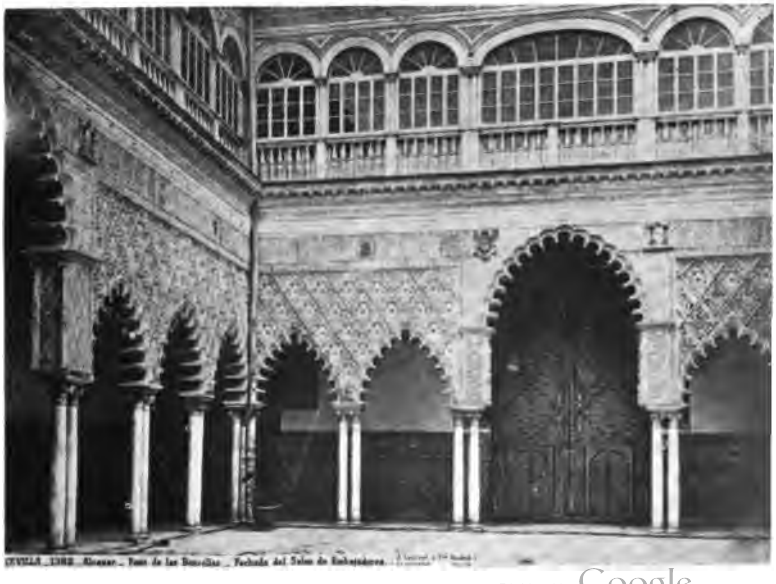
Sevilla. Façade of the Alcâzar.
*Laurent Photograph.*



**Sevilla. Alcázar. Court of the Damsels and Façade of the Hall of the Ambassadors.**
***Laurent Photograph.***

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Luis Mazzantini and His Company.
*Beauchy Photograph.*

Guerrita Preparing to Kill.

Spanish Courtship. Painting by J. Garcia y Ramos.

Sevilla. Cigarette-Girl. *Laurent Photograph.*

Sevilla. Cigar-Makers. *Beauchy Photograph.*

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Sevilla. Alcázar. General View of the Gardens.

*Laurent Photograph*

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Patio of the Casino de la Amistad.

Summer Home of the Marqués de la Vega de Armijo.

Moorish Bridge.

City Gate from the Bridge.

Views of Córdoba.

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The Baker.

Street Scene.

Girls Washing Clothes.

Girl with Guitar.

Córdoba Types.

*Laurent Photographs.*

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A Street with Peasant Types.

Girls at Fountain in the Orange Court of the Mosque.

Characteristic Scenes in Córdoba.

*Garzón Photographs.*

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Sevilla. The Amphitheater at Itálica.

*Laurent Photograph.*

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lawns were fairly ablaze with little lights which, on closer inspection, proved to be small pots of oil set into the sod.

At twelve-thirty in the morning of a day that was to see a great bull fight, I went to the *Plaza de Toros* to see the bulls brought in. This act is known as the *apartado* or *encierro,* the separation or the shutting-in. The stockade had already been erected across the *Paseo de Marina* so that the bulls could not escape as they were led from the river bank to the bull-ring. I went in behind the ring to the corral and there waited. A couple of Spaniards, amateurs of bull baiting, took me in hand and explained the whole process to me. The bulls are brought in from pasture by herding them up with half a dozen trained oxen, each of which wears a large bell suspended by a broad strap about his neck. The oxen enter the corral and the bulls naturally come after. As they entered, the corral was lighted from the platform where we stood by enormous pitch torches. When all the animals are in the two men who stand over the entrance, one with a long wooden pike and the other with two ropes that control the door, call to the oxen which gradually saunter over toward the door and so get out. If a bull comes with the ox the door is closed and he is prodded with the pike until he goes away. Then the door is opened and the nearest ox slips out. When they have all got out the torches are extinguished. Previous to the entrance of the animals half a dozen men had dropped down to the corral and got behind heavy wooden partitions, parallel to the four walls and not far enough out to allow a bull to enter behind them. These men now set up an infernal din, hammering on the partitions with sticks and yelling like wild Indians. In the semi-darkness a gate is opened and a faint light shines through. Whenever a bull approaches one of the partitions he is vigorously prodded with a long pole, often being thrown down by it. A couple of bulls finally go out through the little door which is immediately closed behind them. The passageway into

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which they enter leads to a couple of pens, and every few steps the way is closed as they pass. Finally they enter the pens that were meant for them and the door is banged to behind them. This is repeated until all are confined. They do not leave these pens until the next afternoon and then by a passageway whose only exit is in the bull ring itself. The bulls that were being enclosed on this particular occasion were those of Miura, which are so fierce that they are known as *mata-toreros,* killers of bull fighters. One of them became so enraged in the corral that he charged full at another bull. For a moment it looked as though we were going to have an impromptu bull fight all to ourselves.

The *feria* or annual fair is unique. All Sevillian society spends the three days in the open. The fair grounds, which lie just outside the city, are equipped with numerous platforms and tents, and here all Sevilla receives its friends in gala costume and all the young society buds outdo themselves in the graceful Spanish dances. It is a very lively, attractive scene and must be witnessed to be appreciated.

Other points of interest in Sevilla are the so-called house of Murillo, the University, the so-called house of Pilate, the *Plaza de San Fernando,* with its palms and orange trees, the City Hall, the *Plaza de la Victoria,* the *Alameda de Hércules,* and the *Calle de las Sierpes,* wherein the whole life of the city centers and where no horses and carriages are allowed. Just across the river lies the interesting suburb of Triana, inhabited mostly by gypsies. Five miles away lies the old Roman city of Itálica, famous as the birthplace of three Roman emperors, Trajan, Hadrian, and Theodosius. A good many Roman remains are still to be seen, and here, in 1898, the President of the Hispanic Society of America carried on a series of successful excavations, some of the results of which are now on exhibition in the Society's Museum in New York City.

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# VII. Granada

DESPITE the fact that the trip from Sevilla to Málaga takes an entire day we find it far from tiresome since we ride through one of the garden spots of the whole country, and enjoy a constant succession of picturesque views. About twenty miles beyond Sevilla we reach the town of Utrera, whose chief interests nowadays are cattle breeding and agriculture. Such was not exactly the case during the period of the Frontier Wars, between the Christians and the Moors, for at that time so frequently did criminals take refuge in Utrera that there arose the proverbial phrase: "Kill him, and go to Utrera." In the Church of Santiago they claim to possess one of the thirty pieces of silver that were paid to Judas Iscariot for the betrayal of Christ. Not long after leaving Utrera we come to Marchena, an old town which is still partly surrounded by walls that are gradually falling into decay, and which possesses one of the many palaces of the Duke of Arcos. Twenty miles beyond this town we pass Osuna, where a university was founded in 1548 and which, since 1562, has been the seat of the Duke of Osuna. One of the ancestors of the Osuna family, the celebrated Marques de Santillana, collected a large library of manuscripts. In succeeding generations this library was added to until it became one of the richest private collections in the world, and for many years is was housed at Osuna. Recently the whole collection passed into the possession of the National Library at Madrid. A few miles beyond Osuna we reach La Roda. Soon after passing it, we see on our right a large salt lake, over the surface of which, in the dry season, a crust forms which looks like a sheet of ice. At Bobadilla, which is the main junction of all the railroads leading to Córdoba, Sevilla, Gibraltar, Málaga, and Granada, we have time for a very comfortable meal, which is well cooked and well served. Not far beyond Bobadilla the Guadalhorce cuts through the coast range in a wild, deep gorge called the *Hoyo*. The train passes through



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eleven tunnels and the finest view of the gorge is to be had between the sixth and seventh.

In Málaga we visited the beautiful little British cemetery, charmingly situated on a sharp incline which leads down to the Mediterranean, with fine views of shore and sea, and under the protection of the guns of the British men of war, is need be. Previous to the laying out of this cemetery in 1830, Protestants were simply buried in the sand along the shore. It is almost needless to add that many a body was unearthed by the constant lapping of the waves along the shore. Now their rest is more secure, and all Protestants who die in Málaga, whether British, Spanish or others, are assured a decent burial.

On our return to the city we walked through the spacious Paseo de la Alameda, with its statue of the Marques de Larios at one end, and at the other its celebrated Fuente de Neptuno, made in Genoa in 1560. Then we went to the *Mercado,* or market place, which was once a Moorish wharf, but which now lies high and dry at some distance from the present wharves. The only part of the building which belongs to the original is the main entrance with its horseshoe arches, two shields and the motto of the Nasrides: "There is no conquerer but God." The Nasrides were the second of the great Moorish dynasties in Spain.

In passing, we should mention the *Plaza de la Constitucion,* with a fine fountain, and the *Plaza de Riego,* in whose attractive grounds is a monument to General José María Torrijos and his forty-nine followers, who were shot in Málaga on December 11, 1831, for their revolt in favor of the Constitution. This is the subject of the painting by Gisbert in the Museum of Modern Art at Madrid. Not far away is the *Plaza de la Victoria,* so called from a little church near one of its corners, known as *El Cristo de la Victoria,* which marks the spot where the tent of Ferdinand the Catholic stood during the siege of the town in 1487.

The first part of the journey to Granada lies through

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the deep gorge of the Guadalhorce and its wild, precipitous *Hoyo,* or *Chorro* as it is likewise called, as far as Bobadilla. Here the road runs eastward and in a few minutes we come upon another beautiful stretch of the Guadalhorce. Ahead of us in the distance rises the romantic peak known as the *Peña de los Enamorados,* or Lover's Crag, which will dominate the horizon until we reach Archidona, whence the view of the crag is at its best. The legend concerning this mountain is, that a Spanish Caballero and a Moorish maiden, locked in each other's embrace, threw themselves from its top rather than fall into the hands of those who were hunting them down. The legend has been made known to English readers by Southey's beautiful poem "Laila and Manuel."

Not many miles beyond Archidona we came to the quaintly situated town of Loja which was considered one of the two keys to Granada, the other being Alhama, lying about twelve and one-half miles away. From the railroad station we catch glimpses of the ruins of a Moorish castle and the town walls. The "Catholic Kings," in 1488, took the town. Alhama had fallen six years previous and its loss has been sung in a contemporary ballad (*Ay de mi Alhama*) which Byron has made familiar to English readers.

Six miles before we reach Granada we come to Atarfe, a railroad station of no interest except for the fact that three miles southwest of it lies the village of Santa Fe, which on two memorable occasions, held the attention of all Christendom. It was here that the surrender of Granada was agreed upon and the formal document signed on November 25, 1491; and here on April 17, 1492, the momentous contract authorizing Columbus to start upon his voyage of exploration and discovery was also signed.

The history of Granada, the capital of the ancient Moorish kingdom and the present province of the same name, is romantic from the very beginning. It reached its period of greatest glory under the Dynasty of the Nas-

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Two Views of the Hoyo (Gorge) of the Guadalhorce on the Way to Málaga.

rides, who ruled during the two hundred and fifty years immediately preceding its conquest by the "Catholic Kings." During this period it was the wealthiest, most learned and most cultured city in the Peninsula, and was frequented by the foremost Arabian poets, historians, philosophers, and scientists.

During our stay in Granada we had the advantage of being piloted about by a friend whom I shall call Don Antonio. He had met us on our arrival and had taken us to the best hotel in the town where we had been given rooms looking out upon the principal square and the towering peaks of the Sierra Nevada. In the afternoon of the next day Don Antonio came for us and took us out through crooked little streets whose buildings were covered with beautiful Arabic frescoes and tracery, to the cathedral. This was built in commemoration of the re-conquest of Southern Spain, and is considered to be the best renaissance building in the Peninsula. Mr. Ferguson thinks that, so far as its plan is concerned, it is one of the best churches in all Europe. The north tower is of three stages and is built (counting from the bottom up) in Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian styles of columns: the proper way to combine them if all of them are to be used. The chief decorations, as well those of sculpture and architecture as those of painting, are due to the gifted Alonso Cano.

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The *Capilla Real* lies to the right of the cathedral itself, although connecting directly with it, and contains the exquisitely carved monuments of the "Catholic Kings" (Ferdinand and Isabella), and their only daughter Juana la Loca (Joanna the Mad) and her consort Philip the Beautiful, Archduke of Austria and first of the Hapsburg dynasty in Spain. The monuments are done in white marble in the style of the Italian Renaissance. By a staircase between the two monuments we descend to the crypt, where we may see the plain, iron-bound, leaden coffins of the four sovereigns just mentioned and that of the Infante Micael. The coffin of the Archduke Philip is the one that Juana la Loca used to carry about with her, as shown in Pradilla's painting in the Modern Museum at Madrid.

After leaving the cathedral we passed to the *Casa del Cabildo Antigua.* This was formerly the seat of the Moorish University founded by Yúsuf I to replace those that had been lost at Sevilla and Córdoba. After having been for a while the residence of the "Catholic Kings" it served from 1500 to 1851, as the Town Hall. It is now merely a warehouse. A liberal use of whitewash has concealed most of the Moorish inscriptions and ornamentations of the inside, but the cornices, window-frames and doors are worth noticing.

After resting for a few minutes in a café, we took a walk through a series of three beautiful *paseos,* each of which goes by two names: the *Paseo de la Alameda,* or *del Invierno* (Winter Promenade); the *Paseo del Salon,* or *de la Primavera* (Spring Promenade); and the *Paseo de la Bomba* or *del Verano* (Summer Promenade). They spread along the banks of the Darro and of the Genil. Near the junction of the two rivers, at the head of the *Paseo del Salon,* is a statue of Isabella the Catholic agreeing to the proposal of Columbus. The monument is in bronze and was unveiled in 1892 under very peculiar circumstances.

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Málaga. View of the Alameda and Fortress.
*Laurent Photograph.*

Just to the Left of the Coast Scene.

Mediterranean Coast.

**Views Looking East from the Beach of the Garden of the Café Hernán Cortés at Málaga.**

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The Guadalhorce River, between Bobadilla and Granada.

Granada. La Peña de los Enamorados.

Granada. The Alhambra. Puerta del Vino and the Gypsy King

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**Granada Gypsy Types.**

***Laurent Photoaraph.***

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Granada. Fountain and Court of Lions. (Alhambra.)

*Laurent Photograph.*

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Granada. The Hall of Justice and the Court of Lions. (Alhambra.)

*Laurent Photograph.*

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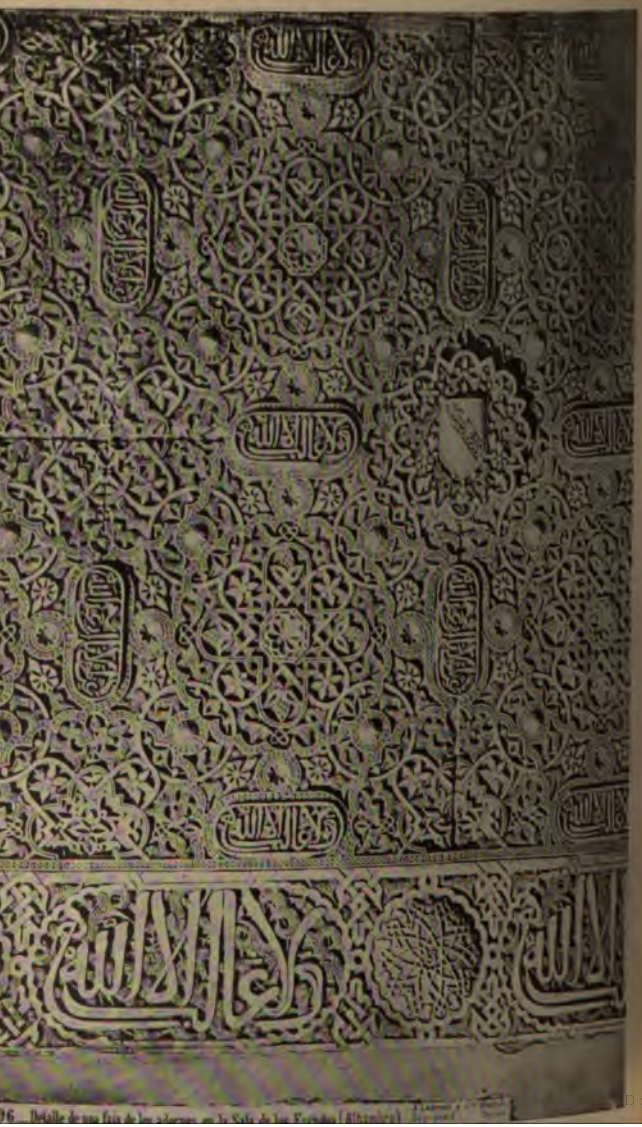

96 — Detalle de una faja de los alicatados de la Sala de los Ajimeces (Alhambra).

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Candle Dance. Popular Festival. Painting by Llovera.

Company of Gypsies Dancing the Fandango.
*Garzón Photograph.*

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The city of Granada built the monument and paid for it. Then it invited the Queen Regent, now the Queen Mother, to come down and unveil it. The Queen accepted and started on the long trip south, stopping at different points, some of them mere towns, to be present at certain functions. The city made great preparations for her reception. A fine grandstand of handsome mosaic woodwork, in the Arabic style, was built for her and her attendants. Fireworks were prepared on an enormous scale and the best bands in the city were put on extra drill for the occasion. At the same time that the city was showing all this popular enthusiasm for the Queen Regent personally, it continued its usual policy of opposition to the throne's program of abrogating the provisions of the Constitution. Suddenly news came from Sevilla that the Queen had decided not to go to Granada, and that she would send three gentlemen of the Court to represent her. The people of Granada were furious. They wanted to know if the Queen thought they would put up with such an insult. Other towns of less importance than Granada could be honored by her presence; evidently she did not think herself safe in Granada (which the citizens naturally resented as an unworthy suspicion), or else she did not consider Granada worth the trouble (which the natives just as naturally resented on other grounds). The mayor of the city of course had to receive the three delegates and did so. But the populace swarmed about the palace and wished to ride them out of town on a rail. One of the officers who had to help receive them was the brother of our friend Don Antonio, who was naturally very anxious lest harm should come to his brother in the performance of his duty. So he hurried to the palace, and from its very doorway addressed the people, beseeching them to do nothing to the delegates; and was largely responsible for diverting the crowd's attention from the delegates to the ceremony of unveiling the monument. At his suggestion they went to the Plaza. One of the crowd mounted the

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platform and addressed the people, saying that the delegates should not unveil the monument. Either the Queen Regent, or the people of the city should unveil it. Since the Queen Regent does not deign to honor you with her presence you, fellow citizens, you yourselves will now unveil it. He pulled the string, the bands began to play, the fireworks were set off, the people cheered and the veil fell from the monument. Then an effigy of the Queen Regent having been made and placed upon the platform built for her, the whole thing was set fire to. But the delegates were allowed to leave in peace.

The next afternoon Don Antonio again called for us and took us, first of all, to the *Casa de los Tiros,* so called because of a dozen barrels of small-bore cannon that project from its open-work, tower-like top. This palace, which looks like anything but a palace from the outside, is the property of the Marques de Campotejar, a Spanish title held by an enormously wealthy Italian nobleman, Count Pallavicini. The palace contains a room, known as the *Cuadra Dorada.* The heavily groined ceiling is profusely decorated with the heads of mediaeval celebrities, carved in the massive beams. There is a fine collection of antiquities, among which is a sword said to have belonged to Boabdil, the last Moorish king of Granada. The whole place shows the exquisite taste of its owner.

Of the famous Alhambra, an adequate description is entirely beyond my powers. Legend and history, so intertwined that it is hard to tell them apart, are in every nook and cranny. One longs to sit down in some quiet spot and give himself up to dreams. The place itself is a dream, and by thus lounging off in some out-of-the-way corner, and letting one's fancy run riot, one can re-people the stately halls and see the dark-eyed Moorish beauties, some lying at ease on rich, soft cushions, and surrounded by heavy crimson hangings; others with a harp or a lute in their hands, and still others in blissful idleness while their maids comb out and sun

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their lustrous black tresses: the *Dolce far niente* on every hand. The Alhambra has hanging over it few of those gruesome tales which are told in connection with the Alcázar at Sevilla, and hence one's dreamings take on a softer, more romantic tone, in spite of the strenuous historical events that are associated therewith. The best preparation one can give oneself for a proper appreciation of the charm of the Alhambra, is a careful reading of Irving's Tales of the Alhambra:

We found ourselves in a deep, narrow ravine, filled with beautiful groves, with a steep avenue, and various footpaths winding through it, bordered with stone seats and ornamented with fountains. To our left we beheld the towers of the Alhambra beetling above us; to our right on the opposite side of the ravine, we were equally dominated by rival towers on a rocky eminence. These we were told were the Torres Vermejos, or vermillion towers, so-called from their ruddy hue. No one knows their origin. They are of a date much anterior to the Alhambra. . . . Ascending the steep and shady avenue we arrived at the foot of a huge square Moorish tower, forming a kind of barbican, through which passed the main entrance to the fortress. The great vestibule, or porch of the gate, is formed by an immense Arabian arch of the horseshoe form, which springs to half the height of the tower. On the keystone of this arch is engraven a gigantic hand. Within the vestibule, on the keystone of this portal, is sculptured in like manner, a gigantic key. Those who pretend to some knowledge of Mohammedan symbols, affirm that the hand is the emblem of doctrine; the five fingers designating the five principal commandments of the creed of Islam, fasting, pilgrimage, alms-giving, ablution, and war against infidels. The key, say they, is the emblem of the faith or of power. . . . After passing the barbican, we descended a narrow lane winding between walls and came on an open esplanade within the fortress, called the Place of the Cisterns from great reservoirs which undermine it cut in the living rock by the Moors to receive the water brought by conduits for the supply of the fortress. Here also is a well of immense depth furnishing the purest and coldest water. . . . [Entering.] We found ourselves in a vast patio or court one hundred and fifty feet in length and upwards of eighty feet in breadth, paved with white marble and decorated at each end with light Moorish peristyles, one of which supported an elegant gallery of fretted architecture. Along the mouldings of the cornices and on the various parts of the walls were escutcheons and ciphers and

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cufic and Arabic characters in high relief repeating the pious mottoes of the Moslem monarchs, the builders of the Alhambra, or extolling their grandeur and munificence. Along the center of the court extended an immense basin or tank a hundred and twenty-four feet in length, twenty-seven in breadth and five feet in depth receiving its water from two marble vases. Hence it is called the Court of the Alberca (pond or tank). Great numbers of goldfish were to be seen gleaming through the waters of the basin and it was bordered by hedges of roses. Passing from the court of the Alberca under a Moorish archway we entered the renowned Court of Lions. No part of the edifice gives a more complete idea of its original beauty than this, for none has suffered so little from the ravages of time. In the center stands the fountain famous in song and story. The alabaster basins still shed their diamond drops; the twelve lions which support them and give the court its name still cast forth crystal streams as in the days of Boabdil. The lions, however, are unworthy of their fame, being miserable sculpture, the work probably of some Christian captive. The court is laid out in flower beds instead of its ancient and appropriate pavement of tiles or marble. . . . Round the four sides of the court are light Arabian arcades of open filigree work, supported by slender pillars of white marble which it is supposed were originally gilded. . . . When one looks upon the fairy traces of the peristyles and the apparently fragile fretwork of the walls, it is difficult to believe that so much has survived the wear and tear of centuries, the shocks of earthquakes, the violence of war, and the quiet though no less baneful pilferings of the tasteful traveler: it is almost sufficient to excuse the popular tradition that the whole is protected by a magic charm.

On one side of the court a rich portal opens into the Hall of the Abencerrages: so called from the gallant cavaliers of that illustrious line who were here perfidiously massacred. There are some who doubt the whole story, but our humble cicerone Mateo pointed out the very wicket of the portal through which they were introduced one by one into the Court of Lions and the white marble fountain in the center of the hall beside which they were beheaded. He showed us also certain broad ruddy stains on the pavement, traces of their blood which according to popular belief can never be effaced. . . . Immediately opposite the Hall of the Abencerrages a portal, richly adorned, leads into a hall of less tragical associations. It is light and lofty, exquisitely graceful in its architecture, paved with white marble and bears the suggestive name of the Hall of the Two Sisters. . . . On each side of this hall are recesses or alcoves for ottomans and couches on which the voluptuous lords of the Alhambra indulged in that dreamy repose so dear

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to the Orientals. A cupola or lantern admits a tempered light from above and a free circulation of air; while on one side is heard the refreshing sound of waters from the fountain of the lions, and on the other the soft splash from the basin in the garden of the Lindaraxa.

It is impossible to contemplate this scene so perfectly Oriental, without feeling the early associations of Arabian romance and almost expecting to see the white arm of some mysterious princess beckoning from the gallery or some dark eye sparkling through the lattice. The abode of beauty is here as if it had been inhabited but yesterday; but where are the two sisters, where the Zoraydas and Lindaraxas!

An abundant supply of water brought from the mountains by old Moorish aqueducts, circulates throughout the palace supplying its baths and fish-pools, sparkling in jets within its hall or murmuring in channels along the marble pavements. When it has paid its debt to the royal pile and visited its gardens and parterres it flows down the long avenue leading to the city, tinkling in rills, gushing in fountains, and maintaining a perpetual verdure in those groves that embower and beautify the whole hill of the Alhambra. . . While the city below pants with noontide heat and the parched Vega trembles to the eye the delicate airs from the Sierra Nevada play through these lofty halls bringing with them the sweetness of the surrounding gardens. Everything invites to that indolent repose, the bliss of southern climes, and while the half-shut eye looks out from shaded balconies upon the glittering landscape, the ear is lulled by the rushing of groves and the murmur of running streams.

The next afternoon Don Antonio took us to the *Albaicin*, which is the gypsy quarter of Granada, and here we visited their caves and saw the famous gypsy dances in the cave of their prince. The dances are performed by a troupe of eleven girls, and are meant to accompany love songs in which (both by the song and the dance) the girl tries to please her lover and make him more earnestly long to possess her. The music was furnished by the prince himself, who is a master of the guitar. The lover was represented by a young relative of the prince. These dances are sensuous and sensual; but their sensuality is entirely legitimate, for we must bear in mind that they are oriental and date back to a time when woman's only career was that of wifehood and when her only charms were

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physical. The girls sit around in a semi-circle and while they sing, cheer the dancer with such cries as "Go it, girl; step lively; your sweetheart is looking at you." If the lover seems inattentive, the girls turn to him, and sing a song calling his attention to the shapely ankle and leg, the lithe waist and voluptuous breasts, the tapering finger and delicate hands, the round plump arms and full throat, the ruby lips and pearly teeth, the shell-like ear, the dark and languid eyes of the dancer, and the graceful, rhythmic movements with which she keeps time to the music. Everything is detailed in a frank attempt to prevent his overlooking any of her charms. One after another they try to win the disdainful swain. When finally one does succeed in pleasing him, he shows it by deigning to join her in the dance, and her companions congratulate her as a prospective bride. Nowhere else in Spain can these dances be seen in quite their pristine power, but once they have been seen in this way they leave an impression which can never be forgotten, no matter how badly or awkwardly one may see them performed on subsequent occasions.

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# VIII. Zaragoza

THE afternoon express train from Madrid reaches Zaragoza about two o'clock in the morning. Zaragoza is the capital of the old kingdom of Aragon and is extremely interesting, although I can hardly agree with those who claim that it surpasses Valencia and Sevilla and is second only to Granada. It is situated on the river Ebro which is spanned by a fine old stone bridge dating from 1447 and known as the *Puente de Piedra.* It is on this bridge that the returning soldiers sing one of the prettiest choruses in the well-known *Zarzuela* (short comic opera) *Gigantes y Cabezudos,* Giants and Dwarfs.

One tarries here a while, to take in the excellent view of the city and river that is spread out before him, and then turns his steps to the old Gothic cathedral called *La Seo,* and one of the few that are dedicated to the Saviour. Possibly the most beautiful individual piece of *La Seo* is the Tabernacle, which indicates the place where the *Cristo de la Seo* is said to have spoken to Funes, one of the canons of the cathedral. By long odds the most gruesome and most incongruous thing in the church is a monument to a murderer who lies in state under a magnificent baldachino. This murderer was the famous, or infamous, at any rate notorious, Inquisitor Pedro Arbues, who himself was finally murdered below the crossing of the cathedral and almost on its altar by Vidal Durans in 1485. His crimes committed in the name of religion had made him fearful of some sort of violence to his own person, as is shown by the fact that at his death it was discovered that he wore a full shirt of chain armor under his robes. The strength of the arm of Durans was too much for it, however, and the deadly steel did its work.

From *La Seo* we went to the other cathedral, dedicated to *La Virgen del Pilar.* It possesses a pillar on which, so the legend runs, the Virgin appeared to Saint James, on his missionary journey through Spain. This miraculous pillar, surmounted by a small incense-blackened wooden

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image of the Virgin (with Christ in her arms), covered with a relatively enormous dalmatica, is always in the presence of a large group of the devout and credulous faithful going over their bead rolls and saying hundreds of *Ave Marias,* with here and there a *Pater Noster.* At the back of the wall of the chapel that contains this group there is a hole which permits the believers to kiss the holy pillar. A long file of peasants, beggars, people of high degree, young and old, male and female, passed by this hole, and kneeling kissed the stone of the pillar, some of them giving it such a resounding smack that we could distinctly hear it where we stood twenty paces away. When they had ended their osculations it was with difficulty that we could bring ourselves to approach the spot near enough to see it well, for we could not but believe that it must fairly reek with pestilence. A similar, and if anything more dangerous, custom exists at the Monastery of Montserrat, where the faithful by hundreds kiss the robe of the Virgin; and at a little village in the kingdom of Valencia there is a Virgin whose robe enjoys the reputation of curing all affections of the eyes, a reputation which leads those who have eye troubles to go there and rub the robe across them, while those who have nothing the matter with their eyes do the same thing as a preventive of future trouble. With such practices as these it is no wonder that one sees so many halt and blind upon the streets of all the cities and towns of Spain. In spite of its gorgeousness this cathedral is, as a building, the least attractive one I have seen, and yet it possesses one real gem: the retablo of the high altar, which is an exquisite carving of Gothic style cut in pure alabaster. It is simply impossible to describe its beauty and delicacy, in spite of the fact that it is somewhat mutilated.

From the cathedral of *La Virgen del Pilar* we went to the *Casa Lonja,* which was formerly the Exchange. This building was finished in 1551, and its main façade rises in

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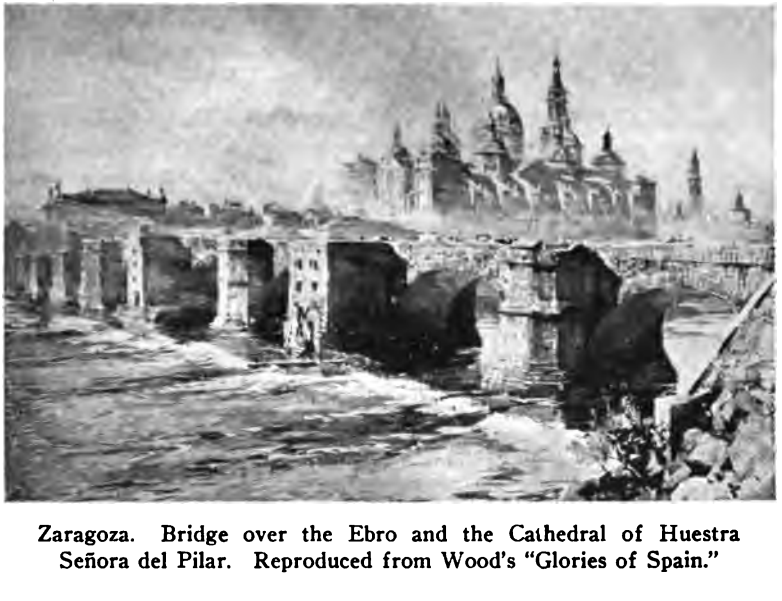

Zaragoza. Bridge over the Ebro and the Cathedral of Huestra Señora del Pilar. Reproduced from Wood's "Glories of Spain."

three tiers, with a mezzanine, and is surmounted with a wide, richly carved overhanging cornice. The interior shows one large hall from floor to roof, with beautiful Gothic groining. The roof is supported on, and the hall is divided into three aisles by, two rows of Ionic columns. In 1901 it was no longer used for anything but exhibitions and the storage of two large bells from the famous leaning tower of Zaragoza, which the Zaragozanos had been foolish enough to tear down.

Our next visit was to the so-called *Casa de Zaporta,* or *de la Infanta.* This was once a handsome, even magnificent, dwelling built in 1550 by Gabriel Zaporta. It was later turned over to the use of one of the princesses of Aragon. Its patio, in two stages, is exquisite even in its present dilapidation; and the whole house shows clearly what its original magnificence and solidity must have been, in spite of the fact that about 1893 it suffered a terrific fire which lasted a week, and that since then it has not been restored.

From here we went to the *Calle de Coso,* which occu-

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pies the place of one of the old fortification walls, and passed the *Fuente de la Sangre* (Fountain of Blood) so called in memory of the bloody struggles of 1809. Following along the *Calle del Coso* we soon reached the palace of the famous Counts of Luna, a noble family whose most distinguished member was the celebrated Anti-Pope Benedict the XIII, known as the Papa Luna. The hero of Verdi's wellknown opera *Il Trovatore* also belonged to this family. The building is now used as a court-house, but has retained its original beautiful ceilings.

Zaragoza. North Wall of the Old Cathedral. Reproduced from Wood's "Glories of Spain."

From the court-house we went to the provincial Diet in the patio of which is a large monument to Lanuza, the defender of the *fueros* or codes of Aragon, who was beheaded by order of Philip II. This building is on the *Plaza de la Constitucion,* in which is the fountain of blood to which reference has already been made. From this plaza runs the finest street in Zaragoza, the *Calle de la Independencia,* which is in the new part of the city, outside the former city walls, and continues to the *Plaza de Aragon.* Near this latter place is the church of Santa Engracia, a rich Gothic building which was considerably damaged during the famous siege of 1808. At present the most noteworthy thing about the

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church itself is its magnificent, exquisitely carved alabastar portal. A door to the right leads down to the crypt, or rather to the subterranean church called *Iglesia de las Santas Masas,* or *de los Mártires.* The name is due to the fact that many Christian martyrs were buried there. The church-beneath-a-church runs at right angles with the one above it. In the niches around the walls are numerous Christian sarcophagi, in which the bodies of the martyrs are said to be. In the middle of the nave is a small monument in the form of a fountain, and it is said that a spring wells up at this point from the blood of the Christian martyrs under Dacian. When I was there the spring seemed to have dried up.

Thence we went to the new university, which really should not be dignified by such a name for the Humanities are entirely ignored, and it is composed only of a faculty of medicine, and a faculty of natural science. This is the more to be regretted because, for a considerable period after its foundation in 1474, it ranked with the other great humanistic centers of Spain; and because previous to this foundation the city itself had been known as a great center of Arabian learning. The ensemble of the university buildings, grouped about several patios, is rather dignified, although some of the lecture-rooms seem a bit crude. The two faculties that it does possess are said to be very good.

Lovers of Byron are all familiar with the heroine in *Childe Harold*—María Agustín—"The Maid of Zaragoza." During the siege of Zaragoza, 1808-1809, she and her lover fought shoulder to shoulder and, nothing daunted when he fell beside her, she grasped the linstock and "filled his fatal post." It is at the *Puerta del Portillo* that this incident is said to have occurred.

But Spain is rich in romantic lore. Every nook and corner has its tale of long ago. From Zaragoza, too, comes the story of fair Lucía, the beautiful actress-wife of the son of a reigning duke. Ostracized by his family, he

made his home for five years in one of the stately palaces of the city. Then Death came and the dear, loving wife was taken from the home. The husband, inconsolable, plunged madly into the War of the Spanish Succession and died upon the battle-field. The palace, although it has never since been occupied and is falling into decay, still shows many traces of its former grandeur.

Zaragoza. Lucía's House. Reproduced from Wood's "Glories of Spain."

Torrero is one of the suburbs of Zaragoa, and here we saw the Imperial Canal, which was undertaken in 1528 and has never been completed. Its present length is about sixty miles, with an average width and depth of seventy-two and ten feet, respectively. Owing to the topography of the district through which it runs, the Canal is at Zaragoza no less than one hundred and twenty feet above the river.

Two more buildings require attention, the old church of *San Pablo,* which was built about 1259, and looks the least like a church of any we visited in the whole country; and the *Castillo de la Aljaferia.* This was built under the Moors and afterwards served as a dwelling of the kings of Aragon, and as the palace of the Inquisition. Much of it was destroyed in 1809, and although it has since been restored sufficiently to make it serve as a barracks, it contains only here and there a suggestion of its former beauty and grandeur. Among these are the *Gran Salon,* with a magnificent artesonado ceiling, divided into thirty compartments, each with a rosette and a pendant pineapple, and the grand staircase. One of the dungeons of the

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palace is said to be the one in which was incarcerated that member of the Luna family who figures in *Il Trovatore*.

Impossible as it may sound, Cervantes gained one of his greatest triumphs in the early part of the nineteenth century and at Zaragoza. I refer to the revival of his play *La Numancia* at Zaragoza in 1808, when Palafox was defending the city against the siege by the combined French troops under Marshals Junot, Moncey, Mortier, and Lannes. The performance, showing the Spaniards how their fathers had died for liberty, inflamed all hearts to such deeds of daring that for a while Napoleon's Marshals were driven back. No triumph could have been more pleasing to the gallant old hero of Lepanto.

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# IX. Cataluna

IN the evening we take train at the northern station of Zaragoza for an uncomfortable all-night trip. There is nothing of interest until at five o'clock in the morning we reach Lérida, one of the oldest towns in Spain and situated on both sides of the Segre river. Strategically it is a very important position and still ranks as a strong fortress. It boasts of two cathedrals, only the newer of which, however, is used for religious purposes. The old cathedral is an extremely interesting structure, of which Mr. Street, in his Gothic Architecture in Spain, speaks in the highest terms. Since 1717 this old cathedral has been used for military purposes.

An interesting post-Bible legend has it that, on the Segre river, near Lérida, the daughter of Herodias met an appropriate death. We are not told whether she was dancing or skating, but in any case she crashed through the ice which, immediately closing in on her neck, cut off her head.

Seventy miles beyond Lérida lies Manresa, indissolubly associated with the last years of Ignacio de Loyola. From the railroad station we cross a narrow, Roman stone bridge and climb to the interesting "colegiata," known as *Santa María de la Seo,* which lies high up on the opposite bank. I know of no better description of the spirit and charm of both Lérida and Manresa than is to be found in the chapters devoted to these two towns in Wood's *Glories of Spain.*

A little later we reached the railroad station of Monistrol, which lies two or three miles from the village itself, to which we were driven in a *tartana,* a two-wheeled cart with seats along the sides. The drive was through the pretty valley of the Llobregat, with the Montserrat towering high above us. We put up at the *Posada del Llobregat,* a typical Spanish inn, picturesquely situated, and facing the river itself. We entered through the same door that served for the horses, the mules, the geese and the chickens, and then climbed the staircase of the patio to the first floor, where we were shown our room with windows



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facing the valley. After lunch we sallied forth and took a train on the cogwheel railroad to climb Montserrat. Upon arrival we went to the administrative office and were assigned our room. Lodgings in the convent are run upon the old medieval plan. The traveler is treated as God-sent and no charge is made. Of course, one is expected to give something, but the overseers never examine how much one offers, and whether little or much it is thankfully received. The room that we had looked out upon the attractive old cloister.

After leaving our satchel and wraps we went to the vesper service. The church was dark when we entered, but little by little the candles were lighted until the altar was ablaze with lights which, reflected in the heavy gold decorations, seemed to be myriad. The music was inspiring and extremely well executed. This is scarcely to be wondered at in view of the fact that the convent's principal importance is now due to its school for ecclesiastical music, *La Escalonia.* The music consisted of a fine chorus, two organs of very rich tone, and a delightful string and wind orchestra, the brasses being entirely absent.

The next morning we went to matins, after which service we were allowed to go up to the *Camarín de la Virgen.* This is one of the finest, most exquisite Gothic creations it has ever been my good fortune to see. Ahead of us was a long line of people awaiting their turn to go up a narrow staircase, at the top of which, on a landing stood a priest beside the object of their long pilgrimage, the *Santa Imágen de la Virgen,* the Holy Image of the Virgin. The statue is a small wooden image, blackened with age, and represents the Virgin seated, with the Christ-child in her lap. One after another the faithful passed up the stairs, kissed the robe which hangs from the Virgin's shoulders and then filed out by another little staircase, at the end of which was an altar boy with a plate, on which money had to be dropped.

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This statue of the Virgin is what caused the building of the monastery, and the special development of the service in her honor, for which the monastery and its musical school have been noted during several centuries. The legend is that Luke made the statue, and that Peter brought it to Spain and left it with the church in Barcelona. On the invasion of the Moors in 717, it was carried into the mountains and hid in a cave. In 880 it was found by some shepherds because of some miraculous meteoric showers that fell over the spot on several successive Saturday nights. The Bishop of Vich was informed of the discovery and tried to take the statue away. When he had reached a certain spot on the mountain the statue refused to go any further, whereupon it was decided to build a monastery for her, and to it she was taken upon its completion in 885. In 1410 Pope Benedict XIII raised it to the dignity of an independent abbey, and for more than four hundred years it was one of the most wealthy and celebrated monasteries in the country, and its abbot, one of the most powerful prelates, on many occasions even ruling political affairs in the principality of Cataluña.

From the church we went for a long walk and one that is fairly difficult in spite of the large sums that have been spent to make the road passable. After passing the cross that marks the spot where the statue became immovable, we came to the famous cave in which the statuette is said to have been found. Over the precipitous ledge in front of it, and so placed that the grotto forms the altar, has been built a pretty little chapel in Byzantine style.

When we reached the monastery again we sat around in the grateful shade of the plane trees in its picturesque old patio. Afterwards we went for a pleasant walk along the face of the mountain by the road known as the *Camino de los Degotalls*, which skirts the base of the towering cliffs on one's left (while far below on one's right lies the valley), and leads to the so-called *Degotalls* (the

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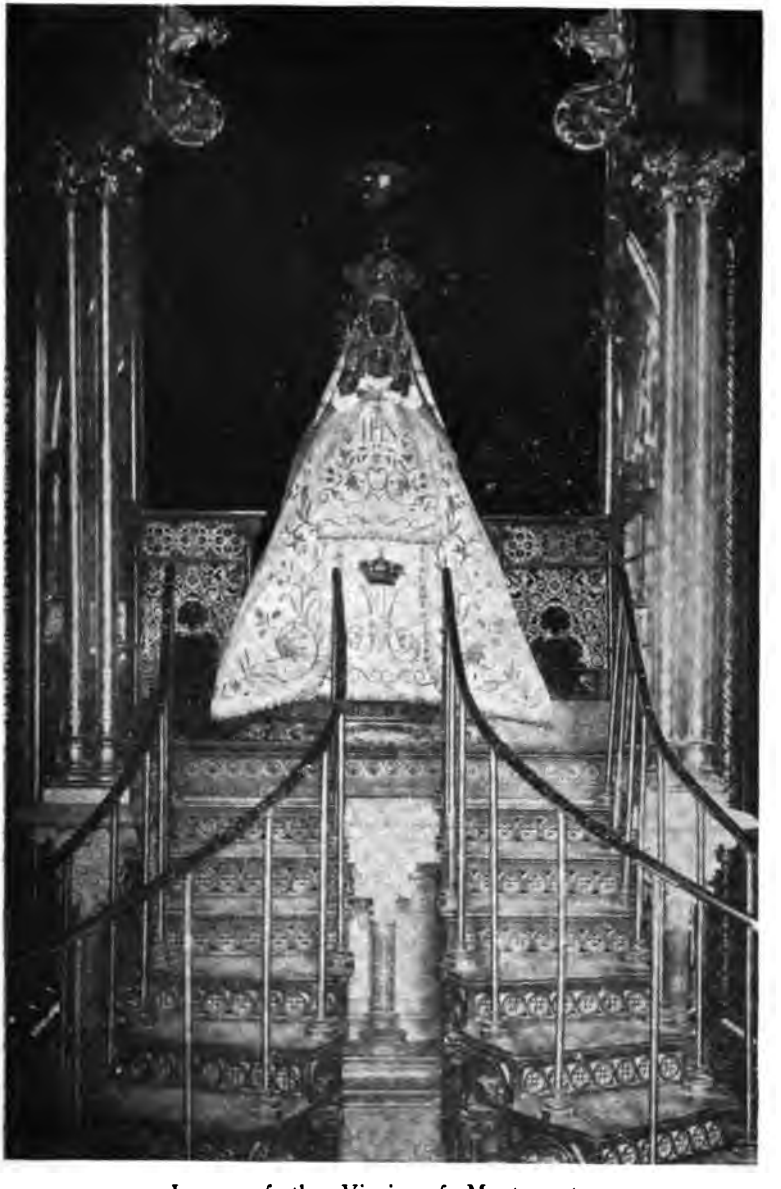

Image of the Virgin of Montserrat.

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Montserrat. The Church and Cloisters.

Drops), a sort of grotto through whose roof drops of water trickle in rainy weather. On our way back to the monastery we passed through the *Mirador de los Monjes*, or convent garden. At five o'clock in the afternoon we took our departure for Monistrol, and returned to our picturesque little inn, where we spent the next two nights and a day before going on to Barcelona.

An interesting feature of Barcelona is the statue of Columbus, erected from 1882 to 1890. When I call it a statue my description is far from complete. It is a monument two hundred feet high and stands only a stone's throw from the water of the bay. The lower part is an enormous stone pedestal surrounded by bronze lions and high reliefs, the latter of which have been most shamefully mutilated. Upon this base rises a tall iron column surmounted by a large gilded ball on which stands the enormous statue of Columbus (twenty-three feet high), by Rafael Atche, so placed that Columbus looks

Barcelona. Court of the Audiencia.
*Laurent Photograph.*

out over the sea toward which he points with outstretched palm.

The church of *Santa María del Pino*, a fifteenth century Gothic building, is a characteristic Catalan church with a large aisleless nave, flanked on each side with a row of chapels. The end is formed by an heptagonal apse that is very beautiful. In the west façade is an enormous rose window, filled with very delicate tracery. As far as both the tracing and the coloring are concerned I think it is the most exquisite Oeil-de-boeuf that I have ever seen. The church gets its name from the legend which says that its figure of the Virgin was found hidden in a pine tree. In honor thereof, every Palm Sunday when all the rest of Christendom is celebrating Christ's entry into Jerusalem, this church celebrates its Virgin, and hangs up a pine branch duly consecrated.

In the afternoon we went to the cathedral, which is likewise built in the Catalan style of Gothic art, whose pe-

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Barcelona. Paseo de Colón, Showing the Columbus Monument and the Fortress of Montjuich.
*Photographer unknown.*

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culiar feature is the extreme width of the nave. Nowhere else has such daring been shown in the proportions. This particular church, too, is one of the best of the Spanish Gothic creations. The nave is eighty-two feet high and *forty-two* feet wide. The windows are extremely small and placed extremely high. They are filled, however, with beautiful stained glass of the fifteenth century, and at sunset the light effects are simply gorgeous!

From here we went to the *Casa Gremial de los Zapateros,* or Shoemaker's Guildhouse, a Renaissance building of 1545. After one has seen the Guildhouses of Brussels, this one offers little of interest except its existence as a *rara avis,* in a country that always has been opposed to any institution that smacks in the least of a possibility of organized resistance against, or protection from, the tyranny and oppression of the Church, or any other constituted authority. While we were in the neighborhood we took occasion to see, too, the Episcopal palace, which seems to have occupied its present site since 926, although the edifice itself has twice been rebuilt; the *Canonja* or Canonry dating from the fifteenth century; and the *Almoyna,* or House of the Almoners.

Thence we went to the *Casa de la Diputación,* or State House for the Principality of Cataluña. The building is architecturally a delight. In it we saw several fine paintings by the Catalan artist Fortuny, chief among which was his Battle of Tetuan, which his untimely death prevented his finishing. Here we saw, too, the famous *Spoliarium* of Luna Novicio, which represents a fallen gladiator as he is being dragged from the arena.

The next day the university was visited. As the rector was in the building, and the regular hours for visiting it are in the afternoon, the porter could not show us about. So we had to content ourselves with seeing the lower corridors and halls, and the spacious, airy patios with their pleasant colonnaded ambulatories. This university was founded in 1450 by Alfonso V of Aragon. The first Bour-

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bon king of Spain transferred it in 1717 to the neighboring town of Cervera, where it remained for more than a century and a quarter.

The *Audiencia,* or court-house of the Principality of Cataluña, is virtually in the same building as the State House. The two buildings are connected by galleries which surround a beautiful patio from which a fine staircase leads up to the cloister-like arcades of the galleries. Penetrating farther into the building we came to the *Patio de los Naranjos,* which is really a hanging garden, since it is built on the roof of the ground floor of the buildings. It gets its name from the large orange trees which shade it. Crossing this patio, we entered the real court-house. The Huissiers, in fine dress suits, and wearing straight swords like those of the Templars, were quite impressive and very courteous. The sacristy of the *Capilla de San Jorge,* the most famous room of the Audiencia, contains a magnificently illuminated manuscript missal, and a fifteenth century altar frontal with beautiful embroidery representing Saint George and the Dragon.

We next went to the *Plaza del Rey,* which used to be the central part of the old palace of the Counts of Barcelona and the Kings of Aragon. This Plaza is bounded on the west by the *Archivo General de la Corona de Aragon,* a Gothic building erected by Charles V. It encloses a quadrangular court from which a fine staircase leads to the cloister-like gallery of the second story. This staircase is surmounted by a beautifully carved wooden cupola, which the Spaniards call *media naranja,* half orange.

We spent one morning in walking up Montjuich under a blazing sun, and visiting the fortress on its crest. This mountain rises gradually out of the valley of the Llobregat, but presents a precipitous front to the sea. It completely dominates Barcelona, and the view from its top is extensive and beautiful. The fortress has large magazines and accomodations for ten thousand soldiers. We passed a most agreeable hour and a half in going over the fortress that the na-

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tives of Barcelona hate, for it is from here that the soldiers descend upon the town, whenever there are riots, and give the rioters a thrashing, just to keep peace in the family.

Later in the afternoon three hours were pleasantly spent in visiting *la Torre de Miramar,* a house of Moorish style, surrounded by immense gardens and orchards, the whole laid out on the slopes of the Montjuich and nestling right up under the walls of the fortress. Here we roamed about, picking figs fresh from the trees and luscious tomatoes from the vines.

The next day shortly after noon we boarded the train for the short three hour run down the coast to Tarragona. This is one of the prettiest rides in all Spain. Tired of barren plains and rugged, treeless mountain sides, the traveler breathes new life as the train runs along so close to the water that at times the tiny waves wash up to the tracks. As soon as we had found our hotel, we set out for a walk along the beautiful *Paseo de Santa Clara,* which skirts the sea edge of the bluff. Tarragona occupies a long, narrow, irregular plateau, that rises almost sheer from the sandy beach of the Mediterranean. This *Paseo* is built on the remains of the old Roman walls and commands an extensive and charming view.

At one point on the land side of the promenade there rises the *Torreón de Pilatos,* a prison likewise built on the Roman walls and simply Cyclopean in the thickness of its own walls. It got its name from the belief that Pontius Pilate was a native of Tarragona.

A little beyond the *Torreón* the promenade leaves the immediate bluff. At its highest point, and built snugly between it and the edge of the cliff, is the provincial Charity Bureau. In the triangle formed by the bluff, the house and the promenade, nestles the fascinating garden belonging to the Bureau, from which we have one of the finest views in all the town.

From this delightful walk, with the twilight slowly gathering about us and the moon rising gradually over the

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blue waters of the Mediterranean as the sun sank behind the mountains in the west, we returned to the hotel.

After resting awhile we set out for another walk through the *Rambla de San Juan,* on which our hotel was situated, and which is the principal thoroughfare of the city. It is a wide, double street, with a promenade in the center lined with trees and as wide as the two carriageways that flank it. It crosses the city at its widest point. At the end nearest the sea is a monument surmounted by a large bronze statue of Admiral Roger de Lauria, who defeated the French fleet of Charles d'Anjou at Naples in 1284, and who is buried in the Cistercian convent of *Santas Creux* about thirty miles away. The statue stands with its back to the sea and consequently faces down the long *Rambla.*

From the bluff behind the statue, we enjoyed the calm, quiet scene that lay before us. The night was somewhat cloudy and the moon itself was often hidden from our sight; but its gleam on the flashing waters of the Mediterranean turned them into a sea of silver, whose form varied with the fleeting movements of the clouds. From below arose the murmur of the waters, as the little waves broke upon the beach, while from behind us, whenever there was a lull in the sea breeze, there was brought to our ears the gentle humming of the conversation of the promenaders out for their nightly airing.

Tarragona is the capital of a province and the seat of an Archbishop. The incumbent of this Metropolitan See disputes the right of the Cardinal Archbishop of Toledo to the title of Primate of Spain and claims that honor for himself. The Popes have never been able to settle the dispute and the Cardinal Archbishop of Toledo, ever since the establishment of the Primacy, has as a matter of fact always enjoyed the privileges and emoluments of the Primate.

The cathedral lays no claim to being the storehouse of priceless works of art, and its chapels contain nothing of

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Tarragona. Roman Aqueduct. Reproduced from Wood's "Glories of Spain."

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Four-Light Ajimez Window.

Cyclopean Gate

Cathedral Cloister.

Views of Tarragona.

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Torreon de Pilatos.

Plaza del Pallol.

Cyclopean Wall.

Roman Inscription.

**Views of Tarragona.**

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Valencian Tartana or Country-Cart.

Valencians in Gala Costume. This is the Characteristic Way of Mounting.

Valenciana in Gala Costume.

Tarragona. Church of San Pablo.

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great interest. But in its own bare, unadorned beauty, it is one of the most imposing examples of the architecture of the Late-Romanesque-Transition period. The transepts are graced with two exquisite rose windows. The only interesting monument is the tomb of James I of Aragón, known as *Jaime el Conquistador,* who died in 1276.

The chief glory of the cathedral lies in its cloisters which are a perfect dream. They date from the first half of the thirteenth century and are, to my mind, the most beautiful I have seen. The garden of the cloisters is filled with oleanders and other evergreens, which make a pretty contrast with the brownish-gray stone of the building. In one of the walls is an exquisite little Moorish window said to be a prayer niche, or *mihrab.*

Late in the afternoon we visited the harbor and walked on the splendid *Muelle del Levante.* This mole was originally constructed in 1491, partly from the fragments of the Roman amphitheater which lay not far away; but it has since been greatly enlarged. From this point one has the best view of the high-lying town.

We now returned to the hotel for a cup of coffee, while waiting for a carriage which was to take us out to the famous Roman Aqueduct. The aqueduct, popularly called *Acueducto de las Ferreras,* or *Pont del Diable,* is one of the most imposing monuments of the Romans in Spain, in spite of the fact that, unlike the aqueduct of Segovia, it is now in ruins. The arches are all intact, but the trough has lost its sides in many places. We climbed up onto the top of it and walked out a short distance until we reached a spot where there were no side walls. The aqueduct consists of two tiers, like that of Segovia. It seems to have been built about the beginning of the Imperial epoch (and hence would antedate the one at Segovia by about two and a half centuries,) to bring the water of the Gayá river to Tarragona through one of the side valleys of the Francolí, and was in use as late as 1800.

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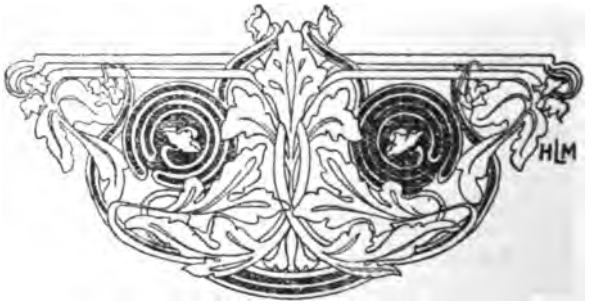
There are three other aqueducts (two of them Roman), all of which today carry water to Tarragona, and we had no finer drinking water anywhere in Spain. Before we returned to the hotel our driver took us out around the edge of the town to see these three aqueducts as they come across the valley immediately below.

Night had now closed in, and, after supper, we again repaired to the bluff at the end of the *Rambla de San Juan* to enjoy once more the witchery of the moonlight upon the waters of the sea.

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# X. Valencia

WITH Tarragona we completed our visit to the Principality of Cataluña, and in the morning took train for Valencia. The trip down was very uncomfortable, for the three hours in the middle of the day, because of the intense suffocating heat; but the beauty of the scenery was well worth the discomfort. This line, like that from Barcelona, skirts the sea all the way from Tarragona to Valencia. At many points the tiny waves of the placid Mediterranean actually wash the tracks, and its deep blue waters are out of sight only as we pierce here and there a promontory whose rocky edge descends so sharply into the water that there is no room for the railway track. On every hand we pass through beautiful groves of olive and almond trees; for this is the garden of Spain, and is even more wonderful in its agricultural feats than is Andalucía.

The most important city through which we pass on the way down is Tortosa. In a country which has always been known for its outward courtesy to women, but in which they have really been kept in virtual slavery, it is of interest to note that the women of this city enjoy peculiar favors. As a reward for their having helped in beating off the Moors during a certain siege of the city in 1149, the king Ramon Berenguer IV conferred upon them the red sash of the Order of the Axe, *La Hacha,* and granted them two other privileges dear to women's hearts, namely, to import their dressgoods free of duty and to precede the men at marriages.

Although the kingdom of Valencia shows very marked traces of its occupation by the Iberians, Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Visgoths, and Arabs previous to its conquest by Spaniards, we none-the-less think of it most often in connection with the Moors and the Cid, who conquered it in 1095 and held it until his death in 1099. During his brief possession of the kingdom, the city of Valencia ac-


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quired the name by which it has continued to be known: *Valencia del Cid.* Even after his death his wife Jimena tried to hold the city, and the Spanish ballad writers seem never to have wearied of telling how, when she found that to be impossible, she placed the corpse of her husband astride his old warhorse, Babieca, which he had won from a Moorish king, and rode out of the city with him, while the Moors, who were ignorant of his death, fled in terror.

We began our sightseeing with the cathedral, which some says occupies the site on which formerly stood a temple of Diana. The present building was founded in 1262 and finished in 1482, and like most of the cathedrals in the country is dedicated to the Virgin. It is in many respects an interesting building and contains several very good pictures. In the semicircular ambulatory there is a dark chapel to the *Virgen del Puig,* which has two exquisite alabaster windows. The beautiful old Gothic *Sala Capitular Antigua* should also be seen.

The *Miguelete,* or bell tower, is mounted by a winding staircase of two hundred and seven steps. They say it was originally meant to be much higher; but its present height, one hundred and fifty-two feet, is curiously enough equal to the circumference of its eight equal sides. The tower is named from a bell which it contains, and which in turn got its name from the fact that it was first hung on Saint Michael's Day. The strokes of this bell regulate the irrigation of the whole *Huerta de Valencia.* Although this is one of the most fertile regions of Spain it depends almost entirely on artificial irrigation. The view from the top of the belfry is extensive and beautiful It is said that when the Cid had conquered the city he brought his wife, Jimena, and his daughters, Elvira and Sol, to the top of the tower, not this one, but the Moorish tower that originally stood here, in order to show them the earthly paradise he had won for them.

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The *Puerta de Serranos,* the old North Gate of the city, is an interesting structure of the second half of the fourteenth century, and one of the two only extant remains of the old fortification walls. After passing through it, we took a tramcar halfway around the city, following the boulevards which, as in the case of Barcelona, occupy the site of the former city walls. After leaving the car we went to the *Convento de las Escuelas Pias,* or *de los Escolapios.* The Escolapians are a teaching order, like the Jesuits but differing from the Jesuits in that they teach the poor. The convent is a large, clean, well-kept place, and we were shown about by a little old man, a lay brother, who was very courteous to us and much interested in the freedom of religious worship as found in the United States. He informed us that in Spain those who enjoyed the least religious liberty were the Roman Catholics, and as an example cited a circumstance that had occurred only two weeks before, when the populace had arisen *en masse* in Valencia and prevented the occurrence of a Jubilee procession which the people took to be a political demonstration under the cover of religion.

Valencia. Renaissance Tower. Reproduced from Wood's "Glories of Spain."

On the following day we went to the market place, which was alive with people, peasants from the surrounding country dressed in their peculiar semi-oriental costumes, and presented a scene which words cannot describe. Facing the market place is the *Lonja de la Seda,* or Silk Exchange,

a beautiful Gothic building erected in 1482. Its main façade, one hundred and seventy-eight feet long and richly decorated, is divided vertically into three sections, the middle one rising higher than the others in a sort of tower. The whole interior of the east wing is given up to the Exchange Hall. The star vaulting, of whose richness you may judge by the accompanying illustration, is supported on two rows of spiral pillars which divide the hall into three lofty aisles. It is all very bold, light and elegant, and the branching of the spiral columns into the groining of the star vaulting produces the effect of a forest of stone palms. Behind the center part, and enclosed between the two wings, is a pleasant patio of orange trees. The walls that face this patio are decorated with beautiful ajímez windows.

Valencia. La Audieñcia. El Salon de Cortes. Reproduced from Wood's "Glories of Spain."

At Sagunto near Valencia we visited the Old Roman Theater, which lies about half way up. Few Roman monuments of this kind are as well preserved. We first encountered the stage and its adjoining buildings. The stage itself is exceptionally shallow, only about eight and a half feet in depth. We ascended an inclined gallery through the foundations of these buildings and emerged on the semi-circular

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orchestra, or chorus, directly in front of the stage. The latter I mounted in order to take some photographs and myself get a better view of the whole. To my left were some large, cavernous rooms built in the very foundations of the extreme end of the auditorium, and visible only because part of the end had fallen in. Before me lay the curved and concentric rows of the seats of the auditorium. As usual this follows the lines of the hill on which it is located, and the seats (with the exception of the aforesaid extreme ends) are hewn out of the living rock. There are twenty-two of these rows, the lower fourteen being separated from the upper eight by a broad passageway, to which subterranean passages and galleries lead, so that the spectators for the upper seats did not need to disturb those for the lower ones in going to their places. Some authorities say that there were originally four more rows above the highest now to be seen, and that the seating capacity of the theater was about eight thousand.

The view from the theater, both uphill at the fortification walls of the old Roman town, and downhill, at the only less old present town, is very picturesque; while that from the chorus level through the vaulted arches on the right, taking in the cypresses on the distant Calvario is especially charming.

It was pleasure unalloyed to be able to sit in the breezy shade in one of the time-worn seats, and imagine that I was listening to, and looking at, a performance of the *Miles Gloriosus,* or the *Captivi,* or the *Amphitruo* of Plautus, or the jolly, pretty little *Andria,* or the *Phormio* of Terence.

After indulging in such day dreams for a while I climbed up to explore the citadel. And what scenes that citadel has witnessed! The present fortifications mark the site of Saguntum, an old Iberian town famous for its unsuccessful resistance to Hannibal in 219 B. C. After eight months of siege the Carthaginians captured the citadel as well as the town; but Hannibal found almost

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Valencia. Interior of the Silk Exchange.

none of the inhabitants, for they had died fighting or voluntarily perished in the flames of the burning city, thus setting an example for the inhabitants of Numantia about a hundred years later. Five years after its capture by the Carthaginians the Romans took the city and rebuilt it. Its former importance was never regained, however, although the Roman remains show that even in the second period it was no mean city.

The Moors, whom the redoubtable Cid drove out temporarily in 1099, knew Sagunto only as *Murbiter*, which gave it the name of *Murviedro*, by which it was known

throughout the Middle Ages, and down to 1877, when the old classical name was restored. The only use the Moors and their successors ever made of the noble remains of this glorious past was to turn them into a quarry. It is a pleasure to know that the days of such ruthless destruction are over. The Historical Society of Sagunto has put the remains under lock and key, and those in the immediate neighborhood of the town are being collected, preserved and studied. The ruins and collections are all accessible on request, however, so that any tourist may see them.

Fortress of Sagunto. Puerta de Almenara.

The fortress is divided latitudinally by many strong walls( almost as strong as the exterior walls), which cut it up, like the bulkheads of a ship, into several separately defensible parts. The *Puerta de Almenara* gives one an idea of the doorway in one of these lateral fortification walls. The view of the city, the coast and the sea from the extreme eastern end of the hill, which drops precipitously right to the edge of the city, is simply superb!

Among other things that I looked into were the dungeons in which the disobedient soldiers were incarcerated. One soldier evidently had a fit of the "blues," and was thinking of his sweetheart while thus in durance vile, for he had written on the wall of his dungeon the following poetical effusion:

"Pobre Lola mía!
En tí siempre estoy pensando,
Por tí estoy siempre llorando
Las desdichas de mis dichas."

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Left Side of Amphitheater from Left Stage End.

Amphitheater as Seen from the Right End.

Caves of Left End.

Right End.

Roman Theater at Sagunto.

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Valencia. Cathedral. Gate of the Apostles.

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(Poor Lola mine!—Of thee always I am thinking,—For thee always I'm bewailing—The misfortunes of my fortunes.)

There are two things about Valencia which are more characteristic than anything else and I have intentionally left them until the last. The first is its celebrated pottery. The jars and vases of this ware are never made in ugly shapes, and the prevailing colors of the decorations on the cream-brown foundation are old gold and burnished blue. The other thing to which I referred is the *Tribunal de las Aguas,* or Tribunal of the Waters, which meets every Thursday morning, and controls all the irrigation of the Vega de Valencia. To my mind there is no better description of this ancient institution than that given by the celebrated Valencian writer Vicente Blasco Ibanez in his masterpiece, *La Barraca,* and I cannot resist the temptation to quote:

"It was Thursday, and according to a custom hallowed by five centuries of observance the *Tribune de las Aguas* was going to hold a session in front of the *Puerta de los Apóstoles* of the Cathedral.

"The clock on the *Miguelete* showed the hour to be a few minutes past ten, and the inhabitants of the *Huerta de Valencia* were congregating in small groups or sitting on the edge of the dry fountain that adorns the plaza, forming about its basin an animated garland of blue and white mantles, red and yellow kerchiefs and percale skirts of bright, gay colors.

"Some came up leading their horses or mules by the head strap, the animals being loaded with saddlebags of woven reeds filled to the brim with manure: manure which they had gladly collected from the streets during the early hours of the morning. Others, in empty carts, tried to soften the hearts of the police, and persuade those worthies to allow them and their carts to remain where they were. And while the old men chatted with the women, the young fellows betook themselves to the nearby café in order to kill time over a glass of firewater while they industriously chewed on the end of a two-for-a-cent cigar.

"Everyone in the *Huerta* who had any grudges to avenge or damages to claim, was there, pigheaded and gesticulating wildly, as he talked of his rights, and impatiently awaited the moment when, in the presence of the Sindics, or Judges of the Seven Irrigating Canals, he might let loose the interminable rosary of his complaints.

"The Constable of the Tribunal, who had waged battle for more than fifty years against that insolent and aggressive herd, set up, in the shade of the ogival door, the parts of an old sofa of damask. Afterwards he put up a long, low iron railing, thereby

Valencia. Peasant Houses.

enclosing that part of the sidewalk that was to serve as audience chamber.

"The old reddish-brown *Puerta de los Apóstoles,* worn by time and holding up its weather beaten beauties to the light of the sun, formed a background worthy of the ancient Tribunal: it seemed like a stone canopy made expressly to shelter a five-century-old institution.

"In the tympanum appeared the Virgin, surrounded by six chub-cheeked angels, who were stiff albs and exhibited fine plumed wings, flaming foretops and heavy curls as they played upon violas, flutes, flageolets and drums. In the three arches of the doorway ran three garlands of little figures of angels, kings and saints, sheltered under their fretwork canopies. In the strong, massive advance-supports of the doorway one sees the Twelve Apostles, but so weather beaten and disfigured that Christ himself would scarcely be able to recognize them. Their feet are worn away, their noses broken, their hands cut off, a row of grotesque figures. Rather than Apostles they appear like so many cripples who have escaped from some clinic and are painfully showing off their misshapen stumps. Above the portal the rose window which gives light to the church opens up like a gigantic colored flower covered with wire net, while at the lower surface of the portrait, at the base of the columns adorned with the arms of Aragon, the stone has been worn away and the aristas and leafage have been blurred by the rubbing of innumerable generations of hands and shoulders.

"In this ruin of the portal one could divine the passage of sedition and revolution. Beside these stones a whole people had

*Laurent Photograph.* Sagunto (Murviedro). **General View from the Fortress.**

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congregated and united: there, in centuries past, oriental Valencianism, vociferous and red-faced, had been agitated, and the saints of the portal, mutilated and smooth, like Egyptian mummies, seemed, as they looked up toward heaven, to be listening still to the revolutionary bell of the *Unión*, or the shots of the *Germanías*.

"The *alguacil* finished arranging the Tribunal and placed himself at the entrance to the enclosure, to await the arrival of the judges. They arrived one by one, solemn of countenance, with the outward appearance of well-to-do farmers, dressed in black, with white hemp slippers, and under the broad brimmed hats a silk kerchief wound around the head. Each one was followed by a crowd of ditch guards and solicitors who, before the hour of court, were trying to predispose the mind of the judge in their favor.

"The farming people look with respect on these judges, who have risen from their own class, and whose decisions admit of no appeal. They are the masters of the water: in their hands lie the life of the families, the nourishment of the fields, the opportune watering, the lack of which kills a whole harvest. And the inhabitants of the extensive prairie divided by the river, which forms as it were a frontier that cannot be passed, designate the judges by the names of the canals they represent.

"A wizened, bent old man, whose horny red hands trembled as he leaned upon his thick staff, was Cuart de Feitenar; the other, stout and majestic, with little eyes that were scarcely visible under his bushy white eyebrows, was Mislata; a little later along came Rascaña, a fine bullet-headed young fellow in a well ironed blouse; and after them the others arrived one by one until their number of seven was complete: Favara, Robella, Tormos, and Mestalla.

"Now the representatives of both *Vegas* were present: those of the Vega of the right bank of the river, the one which has four irrigating canals and includes the orchard of Ruzafa with its shady roads which are lost from sight on the borders of the marshy Albufera;* and those of the Vega of the left bank of the Turia, the poetic Vega, the one renowned for the strawberries of Benimaclet, and for the edible cyperus (*chufa*) of Alboraya, and for its gardens eternally overrun with flowers.

"The seven judges greeted each other as people do who have not seen each other for a week. They stood near the door of the Cathedral talking of their affairs, and as the doors, covered with religious notices, swung open from time to time, there floated out into the sultry atmosphere of the plaza a gust of fresh air surcharged with the odor of incense, as it were the damp breath of some subterranean cavern.

"At half-past-eleven, when the divine service was finished, and when people, except for some belated devotee, no longer were coming out of the Basilica, the Tribunal began its work.

"The seven judges sat down on the old sofa. From all sides of the plaza the farmers ran up to gather about the grille in a compact mass of seventy bodies which exhaled a strong odor of straw and coarse wool. The *Alguacil*, stiff and majestic, stationed himself beside the staff, surmounted by a bronze boathook, which was the symbol of this aquatic justice.

*The Albufera is a large body of water some fifteen or eighteen miles in length and separated from the Mediterranean by a narrow wooded strip of land varying from six to twenty feet above the level of the sea. Although its waters are now sweet, it is the last relic of the time when the Mediterranean covered all the coast plain of Valencia.

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The judges, after taking off their hats, sat with their hands clasped between their knees and their eyes fixed on the ground. Then the oldest of them pronounced the customary phrase: *Sobri el tribunal* (The Tribunal is open).

"A hush fell upon the place. The whole crowd, observing a religious silence, behaved itself there in the midst of the plaza as though it were in a temple. The creaking of the carts, the rattle of the horsecars, all the noise of modern life passed without touching or affecting that venerable institution which sat there tranquilly, like a person in his own house, heedless of time, unmindful of the radical change of everything that surrounded it, and incapable of any reform.

"The farmers are proud of their Tribunal. That is the way to administer justice: the penalty sharp and immediate, and no red tape in which honest men become involved and confused. The absence of stamped paper and of the terrifying notary was what most pleased some persons who were in the habit of regarding with a certain superstitious terror the art of writing, of which they were in ignorance. Here there were no secretaries, no pens, no days of anguish spent in awaiting the sentence, no terrorizing guards: nor anything but mere words.

"The judges kept the declarations and testimony in their minds and gave sentence immediately with the calmness of persons who know that their decisions must be fulfilled. The one who was guilty of contempt of court was fined: from him who refused to obey the orders and fulfill the sentences of the court they took away the irrigating water and he died of hunger.

"No one played with that Tribunal. It was the patriarchal and simple justice of the good king of legendary fame, who went to the door of his palace every morning to settle the complaints of his subjects: the judicial system of the tribal chief pronouncing sentence at the door of his tent. This is the way in which rascals are punished; thus it is that honest men triumph and there is peace.

"And the public, not wishing to lose a word, men, women, and children crowded up against the iron grille, shaking themselves from time to time with violent movements of the shoulders in order to free themselves from the stifling atmosphere.

"On the other side of the grille, the litigants passed one after another before that sofa, as venerable as the Tribunal itself. The *Alguacil* took up their sticks and staves, considering them to be offensive arms incompatible with the respect due the Tribunal: he pushed the litigants along until he left them planted a few steps away from the judges, their blankets folded over their hands. And if they were a little slow in uncovering their heads, with two sharp tugs he tore off the kerchief. Severe? But that is the way one has to treat that sly crowd.

"The defile was a continual exposition of intricate questions which the lay judges decided with astounding ease. The Guards of the Irrigating Canals and the *Atandadores*, whose duty it is to settle the order in which one shall have his turn at irrigation, formulated the complaints and the defendants appeared for the purpose of expounding their defense. An old man would be represented by his sons who knew how to express themselves with greater energy. A widow would appear accompanied by some friend of her husband's, a recognized protector who spoke in her behalf.

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"Tropical ardor showed itself in all the cases. In the midst of the indictment the defendant could no longer contain himself. 'It's a lie! What they say is false and wicked. They want to ruin me!' But the seven judges received such interruptions with wrathful glances. There no one could talk until his turn came. At a second interruption the defendant would be heavily fined. And there was now and then a hard headed fellow who paid *sou* after *sou*, driven on by that raging vehemence which would not let him hold his tongue in the presence of his accuser.

"The judges, without leaving the bench, put their heads together, like playful goats, whispered a few minutes in a low tone, and then the oldest, in a calm and solemn voice, pronounced sentences, giving the fines in pounds and *sous*, as if the currency had undergone no transformation and as if the majestic Justice were still in the habit of passing through the center of the plaza dressed in his long scarlet robe and accompanied by his escort of Knights of the Pen."

ERRATA.

Page 311. Author's title should read, "Member of Spanish Royal Academy."

Page 323, line 35, should read "Palacio Valdés, Blasco Ibáñez, Nogales, Clarín, and Emilia Pardo Bazán.

Page 324, line 4. A comma should follow "Larra." Line 12. Reading should be "*El Gran Galeoto*."

Page 335, second line from bottom, parenthesis should follow *Aya* in preceding line.

Page 365, fourth line from bottom, Valencia should read Palencia.

Page 433. Quotation from Irving's "Tales of the Alhambra" added by the Editors for the convenience of the readers.

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$2.00. Longfellow, H. W.: *_The Spanish Student_ (in his Poems); _Poems of Places, Spain_, $1.00. Maccoll, Norman: *_Cervantes' Exemplary Novels_ (Excellent. The only complete translation in English), $1.00. Mabbe, James: *_The Celestina_ (Excellent and racy translation of this unique book. Reprinted in Tudor Translations, with critical introduction by James Fitzmaurice-Kelly, $7.50. Ormsby, John: *_Cervantes' Don Quixote_, 4 vols., $3.00. (Best English translation. Reprinted in four small volumes.) Plummer, M. W.: *_Contemporary Spain as shown by her Novelists_ (Selections from Modern Spanish Authors), $1.25. Southey: *_Chronicle of the Cid_, 40c, and _Roderick, the Last of the Goths_ (out of print). Ticknor, George: *_History of Spanish Literature_ (Epoch-making and still the best long history of Spanish literature in English), $10.00.

ART.

Knackfuss: _Murillo_ (_Monograph Series_), $1.50. Moore, George: _Gothic Architecture_. Perkins C. C.: _Builders of Spain_, 2 vols., $5.00. Rothenstein, W.: _Goya_ (Artists' Library Series), $1.00. Street, G. E.: *_Gothic Architecture in Spain_. Books on Velasquez as follows: Armstrong, Sir Walter: _Velasquez_ (Portfolio Monographs), $1.25. _Velasquez_ and _Murillo_ in "The Painters' Series," thirty to sixty small halftones of each artist, each 30 cents postpaid; _Valesquez_ in "Masterpieces in Color," 70 cents postpaid; _Velasquez_, "Masters in Art," 20 cents. The following books by A. F. Calvert known as the *"Spanish Series" are extremely useful. Each volume consists of about half text and the remainder of excellent halftones, numbering several hundred. The price of each volume, except the last named, is $1.25. The list is as follows: _Alhambra of Granada; Cordova; El Greco; Goya; Leon, Burgos and Salamanca; Madrid; Murillo; Royal Palaces in Spain; The Escorial; The Prado; Toledo; Velasquez; Valladolid, Oviedo, Segovia, Zamora, Avila,_ and _Saragossa. Moorish Remains in Spain_, $15.00.

GLOSSARY.

Alcaide, ahl-*cah*-e-day; apartado, ah-par-*tah*-do, distant, remote, diverse; artesonado, ar-tes-son-*ah*-do, shaped in the form of a trough; azulejo, ahth-oo-*lay*-ho, dutch glazed tile painted with various colors, or plain white; cocido, coth-*ee*-do; comuneros, co-moo-*nay*-ros; concha, *con*-tchah; encierro, en-the-*air*-ro; fueros, foo-*air*-os; garlanzo, gar*bahnth*-o; juego de peloto, hoo-*a*-go day pay-*lo*-tah; machete, mah-*tchay*-tay; olla podrida, *ol*-lyah po-*three*-dah; plateresque, plat-er-*esk*, having the appearance of silver-work, applied to an over-florid style of decoration of the 16th century.

SEAL COURSE FOR C. L. S. C. READERS.

The preceding Reading Journey with two additional books form a Chautauqua Seal course. The following books are suggested, but others may be substituted if desired:

Spanish Life in Town and Country, L. Higgins.

Castilian Days, John Hay, $1.25.

A fee of fifty cents will entitle the reader to the review questions, upon answering which the seal will be awarded.

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# Two Spanish Painters of Genius

By Leonard D. Abbott

NOTHING that has happened during the past winter in New York art circles can compare in freshness and surprise with the showing made by two Spanish painters—Joaquin Sorolla y Bastida and Ignacio Zuloaga. Their work burst upon the American consciousness with all the vividness of a revelation. Sorolla, in particular, enchanted the metropolis, and during the dull days of March, 150,000 people flocked to the Hispanic Museum on the heights above the Hudson, to gaze for hours and to comment with enthusiasm on an exhibition of three hundred and sixty pictures that fairly dazzled with their radiant sun-bursts and flashing waters. Zuloaga achieved a quieter success, but none the less real. His "note" is somber and subtle; he paints in low tones—a veritable wizard of the brush.

Both Sorolla and Zuloaga have had their triumphs in Europe, but most of these have been unchronicled here. Both have struggled hard for their successes, and have won on sheer merit. They represent, each in his own way, absorbingly vital tendencies in the artistic development of our time.

Sorolla was born at Valencia in 1863. He began his career when he was fourteen years old, molding it according to standards then prevalent in Spain. It was a period of romanticism, exemplified in the school of historical painting headed by such artists as Rosales and Pradilla. The art of the time was a French importation, rather than a native outgrowth, and Sorolla's early efforts were weak and imitative. His first picture was a battle scene, and he steeped his models in smoke in order to get the most natural effects. It was not a great picture, but its reception encouraged him to go on. In 1884 the young artist won the coveted prize of Rome, and was able to set up his studio in the Italian capital. His next picture, painted when he was twenty-three years old, had a religious sub-



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ject—"The Burial of Christ." It was not, however, until his arrival in Paris a year or two later that he saw clearly what he wanted to do. The naturalism of Bastien-Lepage, the painstaking observation of Adolf von Menzel, were factors in shaping his decision. He determined to return to his own country, and to interpret it to the world in a new way.

With this end in view he returned to Valencia and began to paint directly from nature. He shunned all that had to do with the workshop, all that remotely suggested convention. He sought, even more and more enthusiastically, to bring out on his canvases the effects of light. The new pictures were instantly successful. One was bought by the museum at St. Louis in this country, another by the Luxembourg Museum in Paris. They were sea-studies, painted by the sea-shore, and they brought Sorolla world-wide fame.

These pictures are unique. There is nothing like them in the whole history of art. The best of them are saturated in sunlight. No artist has ever been able to "squeeze sunshine out of a tube" as Sorolla does. He is in love with the sun. His Teutonic friends say that he is afflicted with *Sonnenfanatismus*—a species of sun-frenzy. And equally he loves the waters of the sea, and the naked flesh of the human body. He is pagan and pantheist in one—pagan in the sense that he has returned to the very springs of life and to all that is primitive for his inspiration, pantheist in the sense that he conceives of sunlight, water, and the human body as elements mystically united. There is also in Sorolla's art the entrancing youthfulness that ever fascinates and allures. His little boys and girls racing along the beach are symbols of life in its first rapture. His young men and maidens awakening to the consciousness of sex are types of youthful love as universal in their significance as human nature itself. Only one of our own Americans, and he a poet, not an artist, has conceived of the world in this spirit. He is the author of "Leaves of Grass."

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One of Sorolla's paintings, "After the Bath," portrays a young girl emerging from the ocean, with radiant face, while a boyish cavalier stands behind her holding a robe to enfold her. The figures of the two cast deep shadows on the sand, and the blue water at their backs is flecked with crests of breaking waves. It is a poem of youthful affection. Nothing could be more exquisite. Another picture, a "Sea Idyll,' shows a boy and girl lying close to shore, while the water swirls over their bare limbs. The effect of verisimilitude, of translucent, flowing water, is marvelous. Still a third sea-picture, "Beaching the Fishing Boat," conveys a memorable impression of bellying sails, brown oxen wading to their buttocks, and wind-swept spaces. In all of these studies is a sense of unhampered movements, of joy in life, of gladsome litheness and liberty, that is nothing less than ecstatic.

The one gloomy picture of the Sorolla collection is called "A Sad Inheritance." It belongs to the Sunday-school room of the Church of the Ascension, New York. The "sad inheritance" is that of a group of crippled and imbecile boys who are being watched by a Christ-like priest as they take their bath in the sea. "I suffered horribly when I painted it," Sorolla confesses. "I had to force myself all the time. I shall never paint such a subject again."

Not all of Sorolla's pictures, however, are sea-studies. He has painted portraits of kings and presidents (including our own President Taft), hidalgoes and gypsies, scientists and statesmen. His "Leonese Peasants" and "Old Castilian" are masterly studies in local color. He gives us vistas of flower gardens, the glow of fruit among the leaves, working-women sorting raisins, boys rope-making.

Sorolla is the very type of the "impressionist," and in this is but carrying forward the traditions of his master and fellow-countryman, Velasquez. He paints with "lyrical impetuosity," to quote his own expressive phrase, and the passion to transcribe, he says, came to him "as naturally as breathing or the beatings of the heart," at the

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"Sea Idyll." By Sorolla.

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"The Beach at Valencia." By Sorolla.

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"The Sad Inheritance." By Sorolla.

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"After the Bath." By Sorolla.

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"Toreadors of the Village." By Zuloaga.

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"The Sorceresses of San Millan." By Zuloaga.

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"Vintagers Returning at Evening." By Zuloaga.

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"The Dwarf Gregorio." By Zuloaga.

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earliest dawn of his sympathy with nature. "All inspired painters," he tells us, "are impressionists, even though it be true that some impressionists are not inspired. Nature, the sun itself, produces color effects on this same principle, but instantaneously. The impression of these evanescent visions is what we make desperate attempts to catch and fix by any means at hand. At such moments I am unconscious of materials, of style, of rules, of everything that intervenes between my perception and the object or idea perceived."

Zuloaga is as different from Sorolla as any painter well could be. In the spirit of the realist, he paints not flashes of sunshine, but minute detail. He is the psychologist of the two. If Sorolla is the pagan, Zuloaga, it has been well said, is the Goth. He comes from the Basque district, and reveals the dark spirit of a mountaineering folk whose very history is shrouded in mystery. He was born at Eibar, on the slopes of the Pyrenees, and his father was the foremost chiseler, armorer and decorator of his day. He had to encounter those not unusual trials of genius, opposition on the part of his family and lack of popular appreciation. In his time he has served as metal-worker, book-keeper, art-dealer. He even became a bull-fighter for awhile. But always his dream has been one of artistic accomplishment, and everything he did was a step toward this end. His experience as a bull-fighter proved of inestimable service, for it enabled him to portray the national Spanish pastime with a realism and brilliancy that no other artist has equaled. One of his first pictures, "Before the Bull-Fight," won a gold medal in Barcelona in 1898. The following year he exhibited a triple portrait of "Daniel Zuloaga and His Daughters" at the Salon of the Champ de Mars in Paris. It was bought by the Luxembourg, and is regarded as one of the masterpieces of modern portraiture.

In 1900 Zuloaga sent his prize picture, "Before the Bull-Fight," to the Paris Exposition. It was rejected by the

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Spanish judges, to the great dismay of the painter and his admirers. This incident recalls the similar cases of Manet and Whistler, whose countrymen refused to recognize their genius until it had received the stamp of foreign approval. Zuloaga did not have to wait long, however, for his vindication. His picture was taken to Belgium, enthusiastically received there, and bought by the Brussels Museum.

The stamp of approval set on Zuloaga's work by the Luxembourg and the Brussels Museums gave him a secure place in the artistic world. In the course of time he exhibited in Paris, Berlin, Dresden, Frankfort, Munich, Vienna, Venice, and London. His New York triumph represents the culmination of his career.

Zuloaga's work is of striking originality. He has been called the cleverest artist of his kind in the world today. His subjects are as varied as life itself, and he journeys in quest of congenial models to furthest outlying districts, sometimes with his friend, Auguste Rodin

The women of Zuloaga's paintings range all the way from the "witches" of one of his best known pictures to glorious creatures compact of fire and passion. His young women are adorably graceful. Their attitude and gestures, their languishing glances, their coquettish costumes, belong to the golden age of Spanish romance. He has pictured with equal power and charm the cultured beauty in priceless lace and mantilla, and the daughter of the people, hardly less attractive in her naive, innocent grace.

In a few of Zuloaga's pictures the theatrical element predominates. His "Paulette," a dancing girl in green and pink, his "Mademoiselle Breval as Carmen,"* with her shawl of gorgeous hues, are among the cleverest things, speaking technically, that he has done.

Zuloaga's proletarian studies are as original, in their way, as Sorolla's sea-pictures. When he invaded the shabby, shifty kingdom of laconic dwarfs, ragged mendicants,

*This and additional canvases of both Zuloaga and Sorolla will be found on pages 318-322 of this magazine.

bronzed water-carriers and itinerant venders, he opened up a new world. His "Dwarf Gregorio," with a trio of quaint figures and a hill-town in the distance, has all the wonder of a fairy tale. He knows the peasants, too, and gives them heroic setting. Laborers dining at mid-day in the shade of a tree, or returning home at nightfall with the day's harvesting of grain and fruits, take on an almost classic dignity.

Like all the painters of the Spanish school, from Greco to Goya, Zuloaga works in dull tones, greens, and browns. Like them he is instinctively a realist; like them he has taken his subjects from his environment. In his more cynical moods he has been compared with Hogarth; he obviously owes much both to Velasquez and Goya. But his own individuality is dominant in all his later work.

In surveying the total achievement of Zuloaga and Sorolla and comparing their output, one is struck, in the first place, by the fact that they are both fervid nationalists, finding their joy in revealing the life of their own country. In this they have served, all unconsciously, to promote international comity. Mr. Archer M. Huntington, the President of the Hispanic Society, to whose generosity Americans are indebted for the opportunity to see these pictures, may congratulate himself on the fact that the exhibition of the works of Sorolla and Zuloaga has done more than any other single influence since the days of the Spanish war to bring Spain and the United States together. In the second place they are both men of intense individuality, as all great artists must be. They have seen the world through new eyes. There is a further similarity between them—they are men of primitive instincts, carrying us back to the simple and elemental things. Perhaps this is the chief secret of their success in America. We are sacrificing the natural to the artificial and complex. Sorolla and Zuloaga call us back to the great realities. They show us sunlight over water, the careless joy of youth, and the healthy toil of peasants. We would do well to heed their message.

## REVIEW QUESTIONS ON A READING JOURNEY THROUGH SPAIN.

### CHAPTER I. THE COUNTRY AND THE PEOPLE.

1. How is Spain indebted to the United States? 2. How is that country indebted to Spain? 3. What famous Roman writers were born in Spain? 4. What learned men of the Middle Ages? 5. What legal principles were perpetuated through Spain's influence? 6. How was the Moorish influence felt in Spain? 7. How did Spain develop into its modern form of government? 8. What was the greatest period of Spanish history and why? 9. Show how Spain declined until she was shorn of all her possessions. 10. What works show Spain's eminence in literature? 11. What famous recent works indicate the revival of the Spanish drama? 12. Why does Spain offer special facilities for the study of art?

### CHAPTER II. THE BASQUE PROVINCES.

1. Describe the location of San Sebastian. 2. Describe the customary meals served in Spain. 3. What are the two famous Spanish dishes and how compounded? 4. What exceptional musical advantages has San Sebastian? 5. What is the history of San Sebastian? 6. Who was Admiral Oquendo? 7. What is the story of the Nun of San Sebastian? 8. What other points of interest in the city are worth recalling? 9. What attraction has Pasajes? 10. What is the nature of the trip to Peña de Aya? 11. Describe the native sport of the Basque provinces. 12. Why are the Basques looked upon by scholars with special curiosity? 13. For what is Bilboa celebrated?

### CHAPTER III. OLD CASTILE.

1. What are the physical characteristics of central Spain? 2. What provinces occupy this region? 3. What famous leader was born at Tolosa? What influences have resulted from his life? 4. What was the legend of Garganta? 5. What literary and artistic interest has Burgos? 6. What historical importance had Valladolid? 7. Who was Gil Blas? 8. What interesting collection of ballads has recently been made by a prominent woman of Madrid? 9. What are the striking external features of Avila? 10. How is the Church militant represented by the cathedral at Avila? 11. What superb Roman structure is to be seen at Segovia? 12. What gives to the city an appearance of emptiness? 13. How do the physical surroundings of Segovia compare with those of Toledo? 14. What French influences are evident at La Granja? By whom was the palace built? 15. Why is the trip to El Paular worth while? 16. What important historic event took place at the Alcazar in Segovia?

### CHAPTER IV. SALAMANCA.

1. Contrast the new and old cathedrals of Salamanca. 2. Describe the University of Salamanca in its palmiest days. 3. Who was Fray Luis de Leon? 4. What tardy recognition has been given him? 5. What is the origin of the four great Orders of Spain? 6. What gives to the buildings of Salamanca a unique beauty?

### CHAPTER V. NEW CASTILE.

1. What has been said of the climate of Madrid? 2. Describe the center of the city. 3. What famous works of art does the Prado possess? 4. What splendid collections are to be seen

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in the national library and museums? 5. What art gallery in addition to the Prado does the city possess? 6. What interesting group of buildings lie near the Royal Palace? 7. What is the Universidad Central? 8. What has the *Plaza Mayor* witnessed? 9. Describe the Escorial. 10. What claims to recognition has Alcala? 11. Describe the University. 12. What primitive method of threshing may be seen outside the town? 13. What impressive effect does Toledo present on approach? 14. What are the characteristics of its Alcazar? 15. What is the general impression produced by its Cathedral? 16. What tragic story is told by the Jewish Synagogue? 17. Show the quality of the famous Toledo blades. 18. What is the legend of Roderick and Florinda? 19. What is the general effect produced by the city?

CHAPTER VI. ANDALUCIA.

1. What interesting region is passed in going from Toledo to Córdoba? 2. Who was the Gran Capitan, Gonsalvo de Córdoba? 3. What great importance had Córdoba under the Moors? 4. Describe the Cathedral. 5. What famous monument is at Córdoba? 6. What is the character of the Cathedral at Sevilla? 7. What is the Giralda? 8. What is the nature of the procession of the Cofradias? 9. What importance has the Alcazar? 10. What unique collection of manuscripts is kept at the Casa Lonja? 11. What are the characteristics of the Cigarette girls' Kermiss? 12. How are bulls collected for the bull-fight? 13. What is the nature of the annual fair of Sevilla? 14. Where are the gypsies to be seen in this vicinity? 15. What three Roman emperors were born in the neighboring city of Italica?

CHAPTER VII. GRANADA.

1. To what hero has Malaga erected a monument? 2. What are other chief points of interest in Malaga? 3. What famous documents were signed at Santa Fé? 4. What is the character of the Cathedral of Granada? 5. What famous Spanish rulers are buried here? 6. What incidents attended the unveiling of the monument to Columbus in 1892? 7. What is the Alhambra? 8. What is the Palacio de Generalife? 9. Describe the gypsy quarter of Granada.

CHAPTER VIII. ZARAGOZA.

1. What position did Zaragoza once occupy? 2. What two famous cathedrals does the city possess? Distinguish between them. 3. What striking episodes in Spanish history are recalled in Zaragoza? 4. What is the character of the New University? 5. What noteworthy feature has the Church of Santa Engracia? 6. What romantic tales are associated with the city? 7. What sinister memories are connected with the Castillo de la Aljaféria? 8. How was Cervantes' influence felt at Zaragoza in 1809?

CHAPTER IX. CATALUNA.

1. What gives to Lerida considerable importance? 2. What famous Spaniard spent his last years at Manresa? 3. Describe the convent of Montserrat. 4. What is the legend of its founding? 5. What famous monument stands in Barcelona? 6. How does the church of Santa Maria del Pino illustrate an old superstition? 7. What special charm has the Cathedral? 8. Why is the Shoemaker's Guildhouse a *rara avis?* 9. What are the Ramblas? 10. What interesting features has the Court House or Casa de la Disputacion? 11. Describe the trip to Montjuich. 12. What delightful situation has Tarragona? 13. What ancient dispute between

its archbishop and that of Toledo still continues? 14. What claims to beauty has this cathedral? 15. What fine Roman remains are to be found at Tarragona?

CHAPTER X. VALENCIA.

1. What is the nature of the trip from Tarragona to Valencia. 2. What distinction have the women of Tortosa? 3. What early races have left their mark on this province? 4. What is its chief claim to renown? 5. What important function has the bell of Miguelete? 6. What characteristic scenes does the market-place present? 7. What fine Roman ruins may be seen at Saguntum? 8. What historic events do these recall? 9. What is the nature of the Valencia pottery? 10. What importance has the Tribunal de las Aquas? 11. Describe a meeting of this body.

## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR CLUBS AND CIRCLES.

The following programs trace in general the historical development of Spain. The Reading Journey chapters can scarcely conform to such an arrangement since monuments of earlier and later periods necessarily overlap. The chapters will therefore be taken up, in some cases, out of their regular order so as to relate them somewhat more closely to the chronological scheme. Baedeker is of course indispensable and contains a convenient chronological reference list of Spanish sovereigns and chief events.

FIRST PROGRAM.

Map Review of the physical features of Spain and the old Provinces (see encyclopedias and histories, also "Baedeker," which gives a brief sketch under each group).
Oral Reports: General survey of Spanish History.
Reading: Selections from "National Characteristics," chapter III of "Spanish Life in Town and Country;" also from Gautier's "Wanderings in Spain," introductory chapter.
Roll Call: Pronunciation of Spanish proper names.
Book Review: Chapter I of "The Soul of Spain," by Havelock Ellis. This chapter was published in *The Atlantic*, 98:757, Dec., '06, under the title, "Spirit of Present Day Spain."

SECOND PROGRAM.

Paper: The Basques. (See Hale's "Spain," and other histories, encyclopedias, etc.)
Reading: Selection from "Spanish Living and Dying," in John Hay's "Castilian Days."
Discussion of points of interest in Chapter II of the Reading Journey. (See "Spanish Highways and Byways," Bates. "Types and Traits" in "Spanish Life in Town and Country," Higgins.)
Roll Call: Further study in Spanish proper names.
Reading: Selections from chapter on "Popular Amusements" in "Spanish Life in Town and Country."
Book Review with reading of Selections: "The Bible in Spain,"

THIRD PROGRAM.

Paper: The Goths in Spain. (See histories and encyclopedias.)
Reading: Selection from Southey's "Last of the Goths."
Oral Reports: Salamanca in history. (See "Baedeker," Woods'

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"The Romance of Spain," and all available books). Sant Iago and Bernardo del Carpio. (See Hale's "Spain.")
Selected Readings: Toledo in Gothic Times (see Hale's "Seven Spanish Cities," Gautier's "Wanderings in Spain," Amicis' "Spain," and Hay's "Castilian Days.")
Paper: The nature of Gothic architecture. (See encyclopedias, Moore's "Gothic Architecture," Street's "Gothic Architecture in Spain," also Calvert's "Toledo.")
Reading: From Ruskin's chapter on "The Nature of Gothic" in "Stones of Venice."
Roll Call: Quotations from the Spanish Ballads. (See Longfellow's "Outre Mer.")
Oral Report: The story of the Song of Roland with selections. (See Hale's "Spain," and THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 32:71, Oct., 1900.)

FOURTH PROGRAM.

Brief Review of Chapter VI in the Reading Journey.
Paper: The Story of the Caliphate of Cordova. (See histories and encyclopedias.)
Oral Reports on Cordova: (See Hale's "Seven Spanish Cities," Calvert's "Cordova," Amicis' "Spain," Gautier's "Wanderings in Spain," and Baedeker.)
Reading: Selection from Irving's "Alhambra," first chapter "The Journey."
Paper: The overthrow of the Moors by Alfonso IX. (See "The Story of the Moors in Spain" by Stanley Lane-Poole, other histories, etc.)
Discussion: Sevilla. (See above books mentioned for Cordova, also Seymour's "Saunterings in Spain.")
Reading: Selections from "Passion Week in Seville" in Miss Bates' "Spanish Highways and Byways;" and from "Christmas in Seville," *Outlook*, 91:241-3, Jan. 30, '09.)

FIFTH PROGRAM.

Reports with selected readings on "Spanish Society" and "Modern Madrid." (See "Spanish Life in Town and Country.")
Paper: Goya. (See "Wanderings in Spain" by Gautier, chapter on Madrid, also Calvert's "Goya.")
Reading: Selection from The Escorial in Hay's "Castilian Days."
Discussion: Points of interest in Madrid. (See Calvert's "Madrid," Amicis' "Spain," Hale's "Seven Spanish Cities," and Seymour's "Saunterings in Spain.")
Reading: From Hale's "Seven Spanish Cities," the account of The Bell of Huesca.
Discussion: Points of interest in Toledo. (See books referred to above, also "Toledo" by H. Lynch.)
Reading: Selection from Chapter XIV in "Spanish Life in Town and Country" on the position of women, also from *Review of Reviews*, 38:620, Nov., '08.)

SIXTH PROGRAM.

Paper: Summary of Irving's "Conquest of Granada," Chapters 1-18, with reading of brief selections.
Reading: From Irving's "Alhambra," The Adventure of the Mason.
Paper: Summary of "Conquest of Granada" with selections from Chapters 19 to 44.
Reading: The legend of the Abencerrages. (See Hale's "Spain.")

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Roll Call: Side Lights on Granada from various writers. (See bibliography.)

Paper: Summary of "Conquest of Granada" with selections, Chapters 45 to 66.

Reading: The legend of the Arabian Astrologer from the "Alhambra," or selection from Moorish ballads in "Outre Mer."

Paper: Summary of "Conquest of Granada" with selections, concluded.

Book Review: "Gypsies in Spain," George Borrow.

SEVENTH PROGRAM.

Paper: The story of the Cid Campeador. (See volume with this title by H. B. Clarke, "Hale's "Spain," and the "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature," Vol. VII.)

Reading: Selections from Southey's Chronicles of the Cid. (See Hale's "Spain," also selections in the "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature," and Longfellow's "Outre Mer.")

Paper: Ferdinand and Isabella, their Personal Qualities and the Significant Events of their Reign. (See bibliography.)

Discussion: Points of interest in chapter III of the Reading Journey. (See Amicis' "Spain," Gautier's "Wanderings in Spain," Wood's "The Romance of Spain," and Hay's "Castilian Days.")

Brief Paper, with Reading: Gil Blas by Le Sage. (See "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature," and works on French literature.)

Roll Call: Items relating to Saint Theresa. (See Spanish Literature, Lives of the saints, encyclopedias, etc. She was a remarkable personality.)

EIGHTH PROGRAM.

Papers: Charles V in Spain; The Hapsburg Philips. (See bibliography, also article in *Cosmopolitan*, 43:465, Sept., '07, Strange Lineage of a Royal Baby.)

Discussion: Points of interest in Chapter VIII of the Reading Journey with reading from Byron's Maid of Zaragossa. (See Hale's "Seven Cities," Amicis' "Spain," Wood's Glories of Spain," etc.)

Paper: Ignatius Loyola and the Jesuits. (See histories, bibliographies and encyclopedias.)

Discussion of the Inquisition in Spain: 1. Its history from a Protestant point of view. 2. From a Catholic point of view. 3. The attitude of the Spanish people towards it both in Philip III's time and at the present. (Look up all available authorities. See the New International encyclopedia, Lea's work on The Inquisition, Hume's "The Spanish People," etc.)

Brief Papers on Velasquez and Murillo. Discussion of their works. (See all available books. The bibliography gives references to a number of inexpensive reproductions. See articles in *Scribner's Magazine*, 42:38, July, '07, on "Memoria of Velasquez" and THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 37:276-83, June, '03, on "Spanish Art in the United States.")

Sketch of Cervantes with readings from Don Quixote. (See Warner Library of the World's Best Literature," encyclopedias and works on Spanish literature. See also The Grave of Cervantes in "Castilian Days" and A Pilgrim's Breviary in "Outre Mer.")

NINTH PROGRAM.

Paper: Spain against Napoleon. (See Hume's "Modern Spain" and other works in bibliography.)

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Brief Reports on the Spanish "Army and Navy" and on "Commerce and Agriculture" in Spain today. (See "Spanish Life in Town and Country," Chapters X and XI.)

Reading: Account of the Siege of Gibraltar by Henry M. Field in *Scribner's Magazine*, April, 1888.

Paper: Spain under Ferdinand VII and Isabella II. (See histories of Modern Spain, encyclopedias, etc.)

Review of article in *Atlantic Monthly*, 99:398-404, March, '07, on Modern Spanish Fiction.

Readings: Illustrative selections from modern Spanish novelists. (See "Contemporary Spain as shown by her novelists" by M. W. Plummer, also "Warner Library" under Valdes, Pardo-Bazan and Valera.)

TENTH PROGRAM.

Paper: Spain since 1870. (See modern histories, "Castilian Days," chapters on "The Press and its Leaders," "The future of Spain," and "Political Spain" in "Spanish Life in Town and Country.")

Readings: Selections from Hale's "Seven Spanish Cities," chapters on "King and Administration," etc.; from Miss Bates' "Spanish Highways and Byways," Funeral of Castelar.

Review of article in *Atlantic Monthly*, 102:357, Sept., '08, on The Spanish Drama of Today.

Discussion of points of interest in Chapters IX and X of the Reading Journey. (See Wood's "Glories of Spain," Seymour's Saunterings in Spain," and Amicis' "Spain.")

Reading: "Home of the Holy Grail," *Harper's Magazine*, 114-747-55, April, '07.)

Discussion of the works of Modern Spanish artists, Sorolla and Zuloaga. (See *Outlook*, 91:912-3, 918-28, April 24, '09, and *Century*, 78:26-36, May, '09.)

Reading: Selections from "Mid Pleasures and Palaces in Barcelona," *Century*, 76:803-13, Oct., '08.)

## PRONUNCIATION OF SPANISH PROPER NAMES.

In the list of proper names given below, which are chiefly Spanish, the pronunciation has been indicated with as much accuracy as possible. The accented syllables are indicated by italics

The sounds of the Spanish vowels are unchangeable, a is always as a in father, e as a in fate, i as e in theme, o as o in home, u as oo in boot, and y like e. In the syllables gue, gui, que, qui the u is silent, being pronounced gay, gee, kay, kee.

Concerning the consonants: b and v are alike and more like the English v but pronounced with both lips closed. C before e or i is like th in thin. Z is always like th in thin; d between vowels and at the end of a word is like th in though. This sound is indicated in the following list by capitals as TH. S always has the sharp hissing quality. R should be trilled with the tip of the tongue. In ll the second l carries the sound of y as in million. The tilda over an ñ indicates a y sound as in union; j is strongly aspirated like ch in the German ach. G before e or i has the same sound strongly gutteral. In a few cases words that have become very common through English use are given with the English pronunciation only. Care should be taken in pronouncing lyon, thyah, nyah, myel, syeh, etc., which constitute only one syllable, namely, yon, yah, yel, yeh, etc., preceded by the sound of the consonant. A capital N indicates the French nasal sound. For the correct rendering of this and the French u the aid of a teacher is almost indispensable.

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# The Old Provinces of Spain With the New Provinces Which in General Correspond to Them

ANDALUSIA—ahn-dah-loo-*seah*
Almeria—ahl-may-*reah*
Cadiz—*ka*-diz
Cordova—*kor*-do-vah
Granada—grah-*nah*-da
Huelva—*wel*-vah
Jean—hah-*en*
Malaga—*mahl*-ah-gah
Sevilla—say-*ve*-lyah

ARAGON—ah-rah-*gon*
Huesca—*wes*-kah
Saragossa—sar-a-*gos*-sah
Teruel—tay-rooh-*el*

ASTURIAS—ahs-*too*-reahs
Oviedo—o-ves-THo

CASTILE, Old—kas-*teel*
Avila—*ah*-ve-lah
Burgos—*boor*-gos
Logrono—lo-*gron*-yo
Palencia—pah-*lain*-theah
Santander—sahn-tahn-*dair*
Segovia—say-*go*-vea
Soria—*so*-reah
Valladolid—vah-lyah-THo-*leeTH*

CASTILE, New—kas-*teel*
Cuenca—*kwoin*-kah
Guadalajara—gwah-dah-lah-*hah*-rah
Madrid—*madrid*
Toledo—to-*le*-do

CATALONIA—kah-tah-*lo*-nea
Barcelona—bar-thay-*lo*-nah
Gerona—ha-*ro*-nah
Lerida—*lay*-ree-THah
Tarragona—tahr-rah-*go*-nah

ESTREMADURA—es-tray-mah-THoo-rah
Caceres—kah-*thay*-rays
Badajos—bah-dah-*hoth*

GALICIA—gah-*lee*-thea
Coruna—ko-*roo*-nah
Lugo—*loo*-go
Orense—o-*ren*-say
Pontevedra—pon-tay-*vay*-dra
LA MANCHA—la *mahn*-cha
Ciudad Real—the*oo*-'l MahTH ray-*ahl*

LEON—lay-*own*
Leon—lay-*own*
Salamanca—sah-lah-*mahn*-cah
Zamora—thah-*mo*-rah

MURCIA—*moor*-theah
Albacete—ahl-bah-*thay*-tay
Murcia—*moor*-theah

NAVARRA—nah-*vahr*-rah
Navarra—nah-*vahr*-rah

VALENCIA—vah-*len*-thyah
Alicante—ah-le-*kahn*-tay
Castellon—kahs-tay-*lyon*
Valencia—val-*en*-theah

VASCONGADAS—vahs-koon-*gah*-THahs
Alava—*ah*-lah-vah
Guipuzcoa—ghee-*pooth*-ko-ah
Biscaya—bis-*cah*-yah

# Additional Proper Names

Alboraya—ahl-bo-*rah*-ya
Alguacil—ahl-*gwah*-theel
Atandadores—ah-tahn-dah-*THo*-rays
Averroes—ah-ver-*o*-es
Alameda—ah-lah-*may*-dah
Archidona—ar-che-*THo*-nah
Alhama—ah-*lah*-mah
Atarfe—ah-*tar*-fay
Alonso Cano—ah-*lohn*-so *kah*-no
Albaicin—ahl-*bah*-e-theen
Alhambra—ahl-*am*-bra
Aranda—ah-*rahn*-dah
Armada—ahr-*mah*-THah
Assis—*ah*-sees
Aleman—ah-lay-*mahn*
Alarcon—ah-lahr-*kon*
Aza—*ah*-thah
Ambrosio de Bengoechea—ahm-*bro*-se-o day bayn-go-*chaya*
Alava—*ah*-lah-vah
Azpeitia—ath-*payee*-teah
Azcoitia—ath-*koee*-teah
Aqueda—ah-*kay*-THah
Arco de Santa Maria—*ar*-co day *sahn*-tah mah-*ree*-ah
Adaja—ah-*dah*-ha
Alcazar—ahl-*kah*-thar
Abderrahman—ahb-dair-*rah*-mahn
Augustin de Rojas—ah-goos-*teen* day *ro*-hahs
Alcala de Henares—ahl-kah-*lah* day a-*nah*-rays
Arianza—ar-*lahn*-thah
Ansurez, Pedro—ahn-*soo*-raith, *pay*-dro
Alcantara—ahl-*kahn*-tah-rah
Academia de Nobles ..rtes de San Fernando—ah-ca-*day*-mea day *no*-blays *ar*-tays *day* sahn fair-*nahn*-do
Aranjuez—ah-*rahn*-hweth
Almoyna—ahl-*moy*-nah
Audiencia—au-de-*en*-theah
Archivo General de la Corona de Aragon—ahr-*che*-vo hain-nay-*rahl* de-*ro*-nah ah-rah-*gon*
Acueducto de las Ferreras—ah-quay-*dook*-to day lahs fay-*ray*-rahs
Amphitud—am-*feet*-ru-o
Albufera—ahl-boo-*fay*-rah
Briviesca—bre-ve-*eis*-ka
Bilbao—beel-*bah*-o
Balearic—bal-e-*ar*-ik
Buen Retiro—bwen ray-*te*-ro
Berruguete—bay-roo-*gay*-tay
Bano de la Cava—*bah*-nyo day lah *kah*-vah
Boetius—bo-*e*-the-us
Bourbon—*boor*-boN
Baroque—ba-*rook*
Biset—bih-*say*
Bidassoa—be-dahs-*so*-ah
Bivar, Ruy Diaz de—*be*-var, rwe dee-ahth day
Biarritz—be-ahr-*rests*
Bobadilla—bo-bah-*THee*-lyah
Boabdil—bo-*ahb*-deel
Bavieca—bah-ve-*e*-kah
Baeza—bah-*e*-thah
Calahorra—kah-lah-*or*-rah
Cistercian—sis-*ter*-she-ahn
Cuadra Dorada—*kwah*-thrah do-rah-THA
Columella—kohl-u-*mel*-ya
Charlemagne—*shar*-e-mane
Cristo de la Seo—*crees*-to day lah *say*-o

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Covarrubias—ko-vahr-*roo*-be-ahs
Celestina—thay-lays-*te*-nah
Cervantes—thair-*vahn*-tais
Carthusian—kar-*thew*-zhe-an
Christeta—krees-*tay*-tah
Cape Ortegal—*or*-te-gal
Cornelis—cor-*may*-lees
Cantabrian—can-*tay*-bre-an
Conde de Polentinos—*kon*-day day po-len-*tee*-nos
Castellon—kahs-tail-*yon*
Clamores—klah-*mo*-res
Celtiberian—selt-i-*be*-rean
Carrera de San Jeronimo—kar-*re*-reh day sahn hay-*roh*-ne-mo
Ceca—*thay*-cah
Cofradias—ko-fran-*de*-ahs
Cigarreras—the-gahr-*ray*-rahs
Chorro—*chor*-ro
Cenil—thay-*neel*
Castillo de la Aljaferia—kah-*ste*-lyo ahl-bah-fay-*ree*
Colegio de Santiago Apostol—koh-*lay*-heo day sahn-teah-go ah-*pohs*-tol
Castellanos—kahs-tay-*lyah*-nos
Casado—kah-*sah*-THo
Colada—ko-*lah*-THah
Casita del Principe—kah-*see*-tah dayl-*preen*-the-pay
Computensian—kom-poo-*tain*-se-ahn
Calatrava—kah-lah-*trah*-vah
Camarin de la Virgen—kah-*mah*-reen day lah *veer*-hen
Cartuja de Miraflores—kahr-*too*-hah day me-rah-*flo*-rays
Cid—theed
Castro de Guilen—*kahs*-tro day ghee-*len*
Calderon—kahl-day-*ron*
Corneille—kor-*nay*
Carin, Nogales—*klar*-in no-*gah*-les
Carrion—kah-re-*own*
Catalan—kaht-ah-*lahs*
Convento de las Escuelas Pias—kon-*ven*-to day lahs ais koowe-lahs *pe*-ahs
Convento de los Escolapios—kon-*ven*-to day lahs ais-ko-*lah*-pe-os
Cronja—kah-*non*-hah
Cervera—thair-*vay*-rah
Casa de los Tiros—*kah*-sah day lohs *te*-rohs
Casa Lonja—*lon*-hah
Casa de la Salina—day lah sah-*lee*-nah
Casa de las Conchas—day las *kon*-chas
Casa del Cabildo Antigua—dayl kah-*beel*-do ahn-*tee*-gwa
Casa de las Muertes—day las *mwair*-tays
Casa de Zaporta—day thah-*bor*-tah
Casa Gremial de los Zapateros—gray-me-*ahl* day lohs thah-pah-*tay*-ros
Casa de la Disputacion—day lah dees-pu-tah-the-*own*
Calle de las Sierpes—*kah*-lyay day lahs *seeair*-pais
Calle del Arenal—dayl ah-ray-*nahl*
Capilla del Corpes Cristi—kah-*pee*-lyah dayl *kor*-poos *krees*-tee
Capilla de Talavera—day tah-lah-*vay*-rah
Capilla de San Jorge—dav sahn *hor*-hay
Capilla Real de Santa Agueda—ray-*ahl* day *sahn*-tah *ah*-gay-THah
Capilla Mayor—mah-*yor*
Casa de Espana—kah-*say* day ais-pah-*nya*
Cerro—doo-*a*-ro
Diego Roderiguez Porcelos—de-*a*-go ro-day-*re*-gwyth por-*thay*-lohs
Duque de la Roca—*du*-kay day lah *ro*-kah
Duero—*doh*-ro
El Cristo de las Batallas—el *crees*-to day las *bah*-*tah*-lyahs
El Cristo de las Ninas—el *se* day las *ne*-nyahs
El Gran Galeoto—el grahn gahl-a-*o*-to
El Paular—el pau-*lar*
El Viaje Entretenido—el *vean*-heh en-tray-tay-*ne*-THo
Escorial—es-ko-re-*al*
Escuelas Pias—es-*kway*-lahs *pe*-yahs
Estudiantina—a-stoo-the*ahn*-*tee*-nah
Estacion de Cadiz—a-stah-the-*own* day *kah*-deeth
Ebro—*a*-bro
Echagaray—a-chay-*gah*-ri (long i)
Echena—a-*chay*-nah
Eylo—*ae*-lo
Eresma—a-*rays*-mah
Fortuny—for-*too*-nee
Fajardo—fah-*kar*-do
Fonseca—fohn-*say*-kah
Fuenfria—foo-en*free*a
Fabrica de la Moneda—*fah*-bre-cah day lah mon-a-THah
Francou—frahn-co-*lee*
Fuente de Neptuno—*fwain*-tay day naip-*too*-no
Fuente de la Sangre—*fwain*-tay day lah *sahn*-gray
Garcia, Alvar—gar-*theah*-, ahl-*var*
Gaya—gah-*yah*
Gigantes y Cabezudos—he-*gahn*-tays e kah-bay-*thu*-THoS
Guimera—ghee-may-*rah*
Galdos, Perez—gahl-*dos pay*-raith
Giralda—he-*rahl*-dah
Guadalhorce—gwah-thah-*loar*-thay
Generalife—hay-nay-rahl-*e*-fay
Gil y Zarate—heel e thah-*rah*-tay
Guadalquivir—gwah-dahl-kee-*veer*
Guevara—gay-*vah*-rah
Goya—*go*-yah
Guadiana—gwah-THe-*ah*-nah
Garganta—gar-*gahn*-tah
Gisbert—ghees-*bair*
Gil Blas—*sheel*-blahs
Guadarrama—gwah-dah-*rah*-mah
Gonzaleth, Fernan—gon-*thah*-leth fair-*nahn*
Gautier, Theophile—go-*tyay*, tay-o-*feel*
Hendaya—ain-*dah*-yah
Hieronymite—hi-eh-*ron*-e-mite
Henares—a-*nah*-rays
Huissiers—we-*syeh*
Huerta—*wehr*-ta
Hoyo—*ho*-yo
Iberian—i-*be*-re-an
Ibanez, Vicente Blasco—e-*bahn*-yaith, ve-*thain*-tay *blahs*-co
Irun—e-*roon*
Ivica—*e*-ve-ca
Jueves—een-*glays*
Il Trovatore—eel tro-vah-*to*-reh
Infante—een-*fan*-tay
Juan Valera—hoo-*ahn* vah-*lay*-rah
Jaca—*hah*-kah
Joachin—ho-ah-*keen*
Junot—zhu-*no*
Jourdan—zhoor-*doN*
Juana—hoo*ah*-nah
Jaime el Conquistador—*hy*-may el kon-kee-stah-*dor*
Jimene—he-*may*-nay
Juegos Florales—*kway*-*ros flo*-*rah*-lays
Juan del Encina—hoo*ahn* dayl ain-*the*-nah
Leon, Fray Luis de—lay-*own* frai loo*wees* day
Las Meninas—lahs-main-*e*-nahs
Legazpi, Miguel Lopez de—lay-*gath*-pee me-*gayl* lo*peth*-day

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La Vida y Muerte del Ray Bambe—lah *ve*-THah e moo*sir*-tay dayl ray *bahm*-bah
La Douce France—lah dooce frahNs
La Cava—lah-*cah*-vah
La Mancha—lah *mahn*-chah
La Escalonia—lah es-cah-lo-*nea*
La Barraca—lah bar-*rah*-cah
La Hacha—lah *ah*-chah
La Virgen del Pilar—lan *veer*-hen dayl pe-*lahr*
La Verdad Sospechosa—lah vair-*dahTH* so-spav-*cho*-sah
La Granja—lah *grahn*-hah
La Grajera—lah gray-*hay*-rah
Llobregat—lyo-bray-*gaht*
Lannes—lanne
Loyola, Ignacio de—loy-*o*-la e-*nyah*-theo day
Lonja de la Seda—*lon*-ha day lah *say*-THah
Loja—*lo*-hah
Lepanto—le-*pan*-to
Lazarillo de Tormes—lah-thah-*rel*-yo day *tor*-mays
Le Menteur le MoN-*teur*
Las Mocedades del Cid—lahs mo-thay-*THah*-THay s dayl *theed*
Larra—*lahr*-rah
Museo del Prado—moo-*say*-o dayl *prah*-THo
Mudejar—moo-*THay*-hahr
Manresa—mahn-*ray*-sah
Monistrol—mon-*ees*-*trol*
Montserrat—MoN-ser-*rah*
Mirador de los Monjes—me-rah-*THor* day los *mon*-hays
Muelle del Levante—moo*ay*-lya dayl lay *vahn*-tay
Miguelete—me-gay-*lay*-tay
Monte Igueldo—*mon*-tay e-*gayl*-do
Monte Urgull—*mon*-tay oor-*gool*
Monte Ulia—*mon*-tay oo-*le*-a
Menendez Pidal, Maria Goyri de—may-*nain*-dayth pe-*THahl*, mah-*ree*-ah *goy*-ree day
Maria del Salto—mah-*ree*-ah dayl sahl-to
Monasterio del Parral—mon-as-*tay*-*reo* dayl par-*rahl*
Madrileno—mah-THre-*lay*-nyo
Murillo—moo-*re*-lyo
Montesa—mon-*tay*-sah
Majorca—ma-*hor*-kah
Minorca—min-*or*-kah
Moncey—moN-say
Mortier—mor-tyay
Marques de Valdecarzana—mar-*kois* day vahl-day-kar-*thah*-nah
Marques de Santillana—mar-*kais* day sahn-te-*lyah*-nah
Marques de Larios—mar-*kais* day *lah*-reos
Marques de Campotejar—mar-*kois* day kahm-po-tay-*har*
Maldonados—mahl-do*nah*-THos
Murbiter—moor-be-*tair*
Murviedro—moor-ve*a*-dro
Mestella—mais-*tay*-lya
Mesca—*mays*-cah
Mezquita—meth-*kee*-tah
Marchena—mar-*chay*-nah
Mercado—mair-*cah*-THo
Mervilliers—mor-ve-*yes*
Moriscos—mo*rees*-kos
Moreto—mo-*ray*-to
Mollere—mo-*lyaire*
Moratin—mo-rah-*teen*
Mistral—mees-*tral*
Madrazo—mah-*THrah*-tho
Nebrija—nay-*bre*-hah
Nunez de Arce—*noon-yaith* day *ar*-thay
Novicio, Luna—no-*vee*-theo, *lu*-na
Novelas Exemplares—no*vay*-lahs ex-aim-*plah*-rays
Numantia—noo-*man*-tea
Naranjos—nar-*ahs*-hos
Nasrides—nahz-*re*-days
Oquendo—o-*kayn*-do
Oyarzun—*oyar*-thoon
Omayyades—o-*my*-yadz
Osuna—o-*soo*-nah
Paseo de la Concha—pah-*say*-o day lah *kon*-chah
Paseo de la Zurriola—pah-*say*-o day lah thoo-re-*o*-lah
Paseo de la Bomba—pah-*say*-o day lah *bom*-bah
Paseo de la Alameda—pah-*say*-o day lah ah-lah-*may*-THa
Paseo de las Delicias—pah-*say*-o day lahs day-*le*-theahs
Paseo del Invierno—pah-*say*-o dayl een-vee-no
Paseo de la Castellana—pah-*say*-o day lah kahs-tayl-*yah*-nah
Paseo de la Primavera—pah-*say*-o day lah pre-mah-*vay*-rah
Paseo de Recoletos—pah-*say*-o day lah ray-co-lay-tos
Palacio de Monterey—pah-*lah*-theo day mon-*tay*-rai
Palacio de Miramer—day me rah-*mair*
Palacio de la Diputacion—day la de-poo-lah the-*own*
Pasajes—pah-*sah*-hes
Pancorbo—pahn-*cor*-bo
Pisuerga—pee-*swair*-gah
Pereda—pay-*ray*-THah
Pepita Jimenez—pay-*pe*-tah he-*may*-neth
Pardo-Bazan, Emilia—*par*-do-bah-*thahn*, a-*mee*-leah
Pradilla—prah-*thee*-lyah
Pena de la Grajera—*pay*-nya day lah grah-*hay*-rah
Pena de Ava—pay-nya day *ah*-yah
Pena de los Enomorados—*pay*-nya day los a-nah-mo-*rah*-THos
Pont du Diable—poN du de*ah*bl
Patio Chico—*pah*-teo *che*-co
Patio de los Naranjos—*pah*-teo day los nah-*rahn*-hos
Posada del Llobregat—po-*sah*-THah dayl lyo-bray-*gaht*
Prado—*prah*-THo
Pallavincini—pah-lah-ve-*che*-ne
Palomino—pah-lo-*me*-no
Palos—*pah*-lohs
Plaza de la Indipendencia—*plah*-thah day lah een-de-pain-*dain*-thea
Plaza del Sol—*plah*-thah dayl *sohl*
Plaza de Guipuzcoa—*plah*-thah day ghee-poo-ko-ah
Plaza de la Constitucion—*plah*-thah day lah con-ste-too-the-*own*
Plaza de Pallol—*plah*-thah day pahl-*yol*
Plaza de la Fuente—*plah*-thah day lah-*fwen*-tay
Plaza del Potro—*plath*-thah dayl *po*-tro
Plaza de Zocodover—*plah*-thah day tho-co-do-*vair*
Plaza del Rey—*plah*-thah dayl *rai*
Plaza de Riego—*plah*-thah day *ree*-go
Plaza de la Lealtad—*plah*-thah day lah lay-ahl-*tath*
Plaza de Toros—*plah*-thah day *to*-ros
Plaza de San Fernando—*plah*-thah day sahn fair-*nahn*-do
Plazuela de la Universidad—plah-*thway*-lah day lan oo-ne-vair-se-*THahTH*
Puerta del Rosario—*pwair*-tah dayl ro-sah-re-o

Puerta del Puente—*pwair*-tah dayl *pwain*-tay
Puerta de Serranos—*pwair*-tah day sair-*rah*-nohs
Puerta de Almenara—*pwair*-tah day ahl-may-*nah*-rah
Puerta Ciclopea—*pwair*-tah the-*clo*-pay-ah
Puerta de Alcala—*pwair*-tah day ahl-kah-*lah*
Puerta de San Martin—*pwair*-tah day sahn mar-*teen*
Puerta Visagra Antigua—*pwair*-tah ve *sah*-grah ahn-*tee*-gwa
Puerta de Reventon—*pwair*-tah day ray-vain-*ton*
Puente de Piedra—*pwain*-tay day *pyea*-drah
Puente de Piedra—*pwain*-tay-day ahl-*kahn*-tah-rah
Pieza del Cordon—pea-thah dayl kor-*don*
Ptolemy—*tol*-e-my
Pradera de San Isidro—prah-*THäy*-rah day sahn e-*see*-dro
Panteon de los Reyes—pahn-tay-*on* day los *rah*-yes
Paraminto—pah-rah*meen*-to
Porcelos, Diego Rodriguez—por-*thay*-los *dyay*-go ro*dre*-gaith
Pampeluna—pahm-pay-*loo*-nah
Pyrenees—*pir*-e-nees
Quintilian—quin-*til*-e-an
Quijote—ke-*ho*-tay
Quevedo—kay-*vay*-THo
Quintero—keen-*tay*-ro
Roncesvalles—rohn-thes-*vahl*-yes
Rocroy—ro-*krwah*
Ribera—re-*bay*-rah
Real Capitana—ray-*ahl* kah-pit-*ah*-nah
Reyrier, Gustav—ray-*nya* *gu*-stahv (French u)
Ramirez—rah-*me*-reth
Rios—*re*-os
Rojas—*ro*-hahs
Ramblas—*rahm*-blahs
Ramon Beranquer—rah-*mon* bay-ren-*kair*
Rascana—rahs-*kah*-nah
Robella—ro-*bail*-ya
Ruzafa—roo-*thah*-fah
Segovia—say-*go*-ve-ah
Sorolla—so-*rohl*-yah
Sangredo—sahn-*gray*-tho
Santo Tomas—*sahn*-to to-*mahs*
Santa Maggiore—*sahn*-ta mahd-*jo*-reh
Santa Maria la Blanca—*sahn*-tah mah-*re*-a lah *blahn*-cah
Santa Maria del Pino—*sahn*-tah mah-*re*-a dayl *pee*-no
Santa Maria de la Seo—*sahn*-tah mah-*re*-a day lah *sa*-yo
Santa Imagen de la Virgen—*sahn*-tah ee-*mah*-hen day lah *veer*-hen
Santa Engracia—*sahn*-tah ain-*grah*-thea
Sabina—sah-*bee*-nah
San Esteban—sahn ais-*tay*-bahn
San Juan de los Reyes—sahn hoo-*ahn* day los *rah*-yes
Santuario de Fuencisla—sahn-*twah*-reo day fwen-*thees*-lah
Solano—so-*lah*-no
Silla del Rey—*seel*-yah dayl *rai*
Simancas—se-*mahn* kahs
Spoliarium—spo-le*ahr*-e-oom
Sala Capitular \ntigua—*sah*-lah kah-pe-too-lar ahn-*tee*-gwa
Salon Condal—sah*l*-*oN* kon-*dahl*
Salon de Profundis—sah-*loN* day pro-*foon*-dees
Sacristia de los Galices—sah-krees-*tea*h day los *gah*-le-thays
Santillana—sahn-teel-*yah*-nah
Sotomayor, Francisco de—so-to-mah-*yor*, frahn-*thees*-ko day
Santiago de Campostela—sahn-te*ah*-go day kahm-po-*stay*-lah
Solis—*so*-lees
Seville—*sev*-il or se-*vill*
Sierra Morena—sy*air*-rah mo-*ray*-nah
Trafalgar—trah-fahl-*gar*
Tingentera—teen-hen-*tay*-rah
Teodolfo—tay-o-*dol*-fo
Tirso de Molina—*teer*-so day mo-*lee*-nah
Tamayo y Baus—tah-*mah*-yo e ba-*oos*
Tolosa—to-*lo*-sah
Tarifa—tah-*re*-fah
Teresa—te-*re*-sah
Tormes—*tor*-mays
Tribunal de las Aguas—tree-boo-*nahl* day lahs *ah*-gwahs
Titian—*tish*-ahn
Torijos, Jose Maria—tor-*re*-hos ho*say* mah-*re*-a
Trois Couronnes—trwah kou-*ronn*
Teatro Real—tay-*ah*-tro ray-*ahl*
Tizon—te-*thon*
Tetuan—tet-too-*ahn*
Torre del Clavero—*tor*-ray dayl klah-*va*-ro
Torre de Miramar—*tor*-ray day me-rah-*mahr*
Torre del Gallo—*tor*-ray dayl *gah*-lyo
Torreon del Pilatos—tor-ray-*own* day pe-*lah*-tos
Torrero—tor-*ray*-ro
Tortosa—tor-*to*-sah
Universidad Central—oo-ne-*vair*-se-THaTH hain-*trahl*
Urumea—oo-roo-*may*-ah
Utrera—oo-*tray*-rah
Villena, Don Enrique—veel-*yay*-nah, dohn en-*ree*-kay
Valdes—vahl-*des*
Visigothic—viz-e-*goth*-ic
Velasquez—vay-*lahs*-keth
Vitoria—ve-*to*-rea
Vidas—*ve*-THahs
Villalva—vee-*lyahl*-vah
Visquio, Jeronimo—vees-kee-o, hay-*ron*-e-mo
Vega Lope de—*vay*-gah, *lo*-pay day
Virgen del Puig—*veer*-hen dayl *pweeg*
Ximena—he-*may*-nah
Yuste—*yoo*-stay
Yusuf—*yoo*-soof
Zorilla—tho-*ree*-lyah
Zurburan—thoor-boo-*rahn*
Zuloaga—thoo-lo-*ah*-gah
Zumarraga—thoo-mahr-*rah*-gah
Zarzuela—thar-*thway*-lah

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